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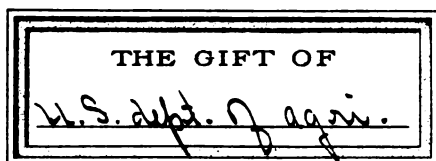
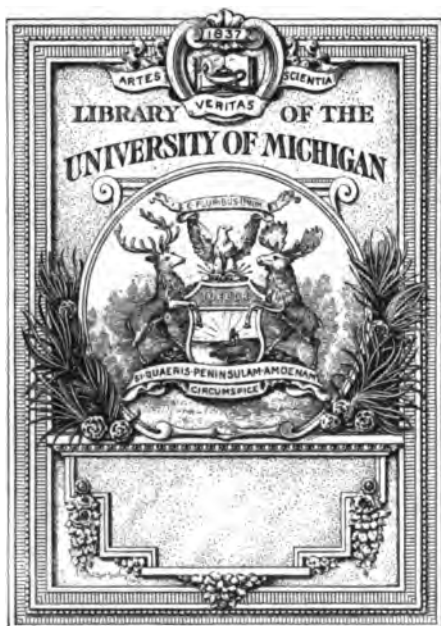
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JUN 30 1908

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY—BULLETIN NO. 122.

B. T. GALLOWAY, *Chief of Bureau.*

CURLY-TOP, A DISEASE OF THE SUGAR BEET.

BY

C. O. TOWNSEND,

PATHOLOGIST IN CHARGE OF SUGAR-BEET INVESTIGATIONS.

ISSUED APRIL 25, 1908.



WASHINGTON:
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1908.

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[Continued on page 3 of cover.]



A SUGAR BEET FOUR MONTHS OLD AFFECTED WITH CURLY-TOP.
(Natural size.)

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

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ISSUED APRIL 25, 1908.



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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY,
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF,

Washington, D. C., January 28, 1908.

SIR: I have the honor to present herewith the manuscript of a bulletin entitled "Curly-Top, a Disease of the Sugar Beet," by Dr. C. O. Townsend, Pathologist in Charge of the Sugar-Beet Investigations of this Bureau. I recommend that it be published as Bulletin No. 122 of the Bureau series.

The bulletin presents the results of the investigations and observations by this Bureau during the past six years. It deals with one of the most destructive diseases of the sugar beet, and while the results obtained thus far are in the main negative, the object in presenting them at this time is twofold: (1) To encourage the growers of sugar beets by showing them that the presence of this disease in their locality during a certain season is not an indication that it has become a permanent factor in the cultivation of sugar beets in that locality, and (2) to assist other experimenters and observers in their efforts to find the real cause of the disease by bringing together the results of what has already been done by this Bureau to that end, thus preventing useless repetitions. It is the purpose to continue the investigations along all possible lines that promise a solution of the problem until the exact cause of curly-top is known and a satisfactory remedy for its control discovered.

Respectfully,

B. T. GALLOWAY,
Chief of Bureau.

HON. JAMES WILSON,
Secretary of Agriculture.

CONTENTS.

	Page.
Symptoms of curly-top.....	7
Occurrence of curly-top.....	8
Names of the disease.....	10
Possible causes of curly-top.....	13
Bacteria.....	14
Fungi.....	14
Fungi attacking the leaves.....	14
Fungi attacking the roots.....	15
The use of fungicides.....	16
Insects.....	17
Abnormal moisture supply.....	18
Entire seed bed too dry.....	18
Insufficient supply of moisture at taproot.....	18
Entire seed bed too wet.....	19
Moisture supply too variable.....	19
Water too cold when applied to plant.....	20
Abnormal soil conditions.....	20
Seed bed too cold.....	20
Seed bed too warm.....	21
Subsoil too hard.....	21
Lack of available plant food in the soil.....	21
Lack of humus in the soil.....	22
Too much alkali in the soil.....	23
Soil too acid.....	24
Improper preparation of the seed bed.....	25
Improper cultivation of the beets.....	25
Insufficient supply of air around the roots.....	26
Abnormal atmospheric conditions.....	27
Atmosphere too cold at time of germination.....	27
Hot, dry winds.....	27
Poor seed.....	28
Combination of unfavorable conditions.....	29
Nonconsecutive appearance of curly-top.....	30
Beets resistant to curly-top.....	30
Communicability of curly-top.....	31
Persistence of curly-top.....	31
Summary.....	32
Description of plates.....	34
Index.....	35

ILLUSTRATIONS.

	Page.
PLATE I. A sugar beet four months old affected with curly-top	Frontispiece.
II. A healthy sugar beet four months old.....	34
III. Fig. 1.—Leaves from a sugar beet three months old affected with curly-top. Fig. 2.—Leaves from a healthy sugar beet three months old	34
IV. Fig. 1.—Cross section through a vein of a beet leaf affected with curly-top. Fig. 2.—Cross section through a vein of a healthy beet leaf.....	34
V. Fig. 1.—Cross sections of a sugar beet four months old affected with curly-top. Fig. 2.—Cross sections of a healthy sugar beet three months old.....	34
VI. Fig. 1.—Longitudinal section of a sugar beet about four months old affected with curly-top. Fig. 2.—A sugar-beet plant that has apparently recovered from an attack of curly-top.....	34
VII. Fig. 1.—Beets in greenhouse defoliated artificially. Fig. 2.—The same beets shown in figure 1 with new tops four weeks after defoliation.....	34
VIII. Fig. 1.—Garden beets four months old showing symptoms of curly-top. Fig. 2.—Garden beets four months old free from curly-top..	34
IX. Fig. 1.—Sugar-beet field in which nearly all the plants in the foreground have been destroyed by curly-top. Fig. 2.—Field of sugar beets seriously affected with curly-top, showing here and there an apparently healthy beet.....	34
X. Fig. 1.—The fourteenth consecutive crop of sugar beets in a field entirely free from curly-top. Fig. 2.—Sugar-beet plants three months old in pots, showing the effect of various methods of watering.....	34
XI. Fig. 1.—Stem of seed beet affected with curly-top. Fig. 2.—Stem of healthy seed beet.	34

CURLY-TOP, A DISEASE OF THE SUGAR BEET.

SYMPTOMS OF CURLY-TOP.

The external characters or symptoms of curly-top are to be found in all parts of the diseased plant. The leaves that develop after the beets become affected with curly-top are very much smaller and more numerous than normal leaves, and the petioles are very short. The leaf blades are both shorter and narrower than normal leaves and are decidedly crinkled and puckered. (Compare Pls. I and II and figs. 1 and 2 of Pl. III.) On the under side of the leaf blade are many elevations, giving the surface a rough appearance. (Pl. III, fig. 1, and Pl. IV, fig. 1.) The leaves are more or less packed together as compared with a normal beet and the crown is decidedly broadened, as shown in Plates I and II. The roots of beets affected with curly-top are usually hairy, but this character, although nearly constant and distinct, is somewhat variable, being frequently more or less marked than Plate I and Plate VIII, figure 1, would indicate.

In regard to the internal characters or symptoms of curly-top, the tissues of the leaves or leaf stems show a distortion of the cells. (Pl. IV, figs. 1 and 2.) A comparison of figures 1 and 2, Plate V, will show the marked alternation of light and dark rings in the cross section of the diseased root, the fibro-vascular bundles being darkened throughout its entire length, as shown in Plate VI, figure 1. The roots are more or less fibrous or woody and pass through the slicers with difficulty, often causing the knives to clog. There is no decay or softening of the tissue in any part of the plant, except as indicated below.

In addition to the constant symptoms—curled leaves more or less roughened below, thickened crown, hairy roots, dark fibro-vascular bundles, and tough woody roots—there are some other symptoms that frequently accompany the constant curly-top characters, but which are not sufficiently constant to be considered symptoms of curly-top. These may be known as conditional symptoms, since their presence depends upon conditions of growth and environment.

One of these conditional symptoms is the stunted appearance of the diseased beets, which becomes apparent if the disease attacks the beets before they reach their full size. This nondevelopment of the

beets is often looked upon as one of the chief indications of curly-top.^a If the beets are full grown before they are attacked by curly-top they will have all the symptoms of the disease, but necessarily can not be stunted in the sense of being below the normal size. Not only may beets have curly-top without being stunted, but they may be stunted by withholding the water necessary for their development, as shown in Plate X, figure 2, or by subjecting them to other abnormal conditions of growth without producing any of the constant curly-top symptoms.

Curly-top beets sometimes have a wilted appearance as if suffering from lack of moisture. This symptom does not always appear, especially in those cases of curly-top that develop after the middle of the growing season, while in any case the wilted appearance of the leaves is not marked until the season is considerably advanced. Moreover, perfectly healthy beets present a wilted appearance when the interval between rains or between irrigations is too long. The outer leaves wilt first in both instances, but in the case of the diseased leaves the wilting is not necessarily accompanied by a drying out of the soil, and the addition of water will not restore the diseased beets to their normal condition.

Another almost constant character, but one that is not confined to curly-top beets, is the presence of a dark spot in the interior of the crown, as shown in Plate VI, figure 1. A cavity frequently develops in this spot, as shown in the figure referred to. The tissue in the darkened spot does not usually decay, although it becomes somewhat softened and either shrinks or fails to develop with sufficient rapidity, thus forming the cavity. A cavity similar in appearance, apparently due to too rapid growth, forms in healthy beets.

OCCURRENCE OF CURLY-TOP.

Of the various diseases of the sugar beet, two have been more or less destructive in this country for several years. One is the eastern blight, or leaf-spot disease, due to the fungus *Cercospora beticola* Sacc.; the other is the so-called western blight, or curly-top, the cause of which has not been definitely determined. The latter disease only will be considered in this bulletin.

Curly-top has been a subject of observation and study by the writer in the field, in the laboratory, and in the greenhouse for the past six years. It seems to have been known for many years in this country. Doctor Hedgcock, of this Bureau, states that he saw distinct cases of curly-top in garden beets in Nebraska more than twenty years ago.

^a Smith, Ralph E. Beet-Blight Investigation. Report of the Plant Pathologist to July 1, 1906. Bulletin No. 184, California Agricultural Experiment Station, p. 240.

There is no record, however, of a serious outbreak of curly-top until the summer of 1900, when it appeared simultaneously in several widely separated sugar-beet areas in the western portion of the United States. In each of these localities it did considerable damage. Since that time it has been more or less destructive in one or more sugar-beet sections each year.

Curly-top has never been reported with certainty from any other country in which sugar beets are grown, and in this country it seems to be confined almost exclusively to the central and western portions of the sugar-beet belt. It has been studied in Indiana by Arthur, Golden, and Cunningham. It has never been observed by the writer east of the Mississippi River, and while it has been seen in practically all of the sugar-beet States west of the Mississippi River, there are localities in several of these States where sugar beets have been grown for five years or more in which a case of curly-top has never been observed.

Curly-top is not confined to any particular variety of beets. It has been observed on garden beets (red beets) and on stock beets (mangel-wurzels), as well as on all strains of sugar beets. As a rule it is more common, however, on sugar beets than on stock or garden beets. Even in those localities where curly-top is very severe on sugar beets, it has been observed that the stock and garden beets suffer comparatively little from the disease. A striking exception to this rule was found in 1907 in our experimental field at Garland, Utah, in which certain plots of garden beets contained a higher percentage of curly-top beets than could be found in any of our sugar-beet plots in the same field.

Plate VIII shows some of the garden beets affected with curly-top compared with healthy beets from the same row. Curly-top outbreaks are not limited to those sugar-beet areas in which alkali is most abundant in the soil, nor entirely to the irrigated portions of the sugar-beet belt. Curly-top is not usually found in all the fields in any given area, even when it is very serious in that locality. Frequently adjacent fields are attacked by this disease in very different measure. Even a given field is not equally affected in all parts, as shown in Plate IX, figure 1. Furthermore, in the same row beets are not all attacked to the same degree, and frequently we find diseased and healthy plants standing but a few inches apart. (See Pl. IX, fig. 2.)

Young plants seem to be most easily attacked by curly-top, but it is not uncommon for beets that are full grown to develop symptoms of this disease. Sometimes second-year beets that are apparently perfectly healthy when selected in the fall show signs of curly-top during the second season. Its appearance on the stems of seed

beets is strikingly shown in Plate XI. The main stem shown in this plate was trimmed for single-germ seed and then covered with paper and cloth bags in the manner described in Bulletin No. 73 ^a of the Bureau of Plant Industry, the young shoots showing curly-top that developed under these conditions.

When the outbreak is very serious, new cases occur from day to day or from week to week throughout the season. The large majority of cases developing in any locality during a given season, however, make their appearance before the plants are one-half grown, and frequently more than 50 per cent of the cases found in a given field occur before the beets are a quarter of their normal size.

NAMES OF THE DISEASE.

This peculiar disease of the sugar beet has received so many different names in different localities that considerable confusion has resulted. It has been known as the California beet disease, a bacterial disease of the sugar beet, bacteriosis, bacterial gummosis, blight, western blight, stunted beets, whiskered beets, hairy-root, and curly-top.

Owing to the fact that this disease of sugar beets first appeared to an alarming extent in California, it was called the "California beet disease." This name was soon abandoned, however, as what appeared to be the same disease was found in several other States that year (1900), and since that time it has appeared with certainty in seven of the sugar-beet States. In 1890 Professor Huston, chemist of the Agricultural Experiment Station of Indiana, noticed an abnormal appearance of certain beet samples that he was preparing for analysis.^b These beets were examined by Dr. J. C. Arthur, of the same station, who found large numbers of bacteria in the diseased specimens, and the disease was consequently designated as a bacterial disease of the sugar beet.

In 1891 Miss Golden published the results of her investigation in regard to this and other diseases of the sugar-beet root found in Indiana.^c She isolated an organism found in beets having abnormally curled and twisted leaves and made inoculations into a small number of healthy plants. Four out of six of the inoculated beets developed leaves similar in appearance to the original beets from which the organism had been obtained. It is to be regretted that such a small number of inoculations into healthy plants was made, since this

^a Townsend, C. O., and Rittue, E. C. The Development of Single-Germ Beet Seed. Bulletin No. 73, Bureau of Plant Industry, March, 1905.

^b Huston, H. A. Sugar Beets. Bulletin No. 39, part 2, Purdue University Agricultural Experiment Station, 1892, p. 49.

^c Golden, Katherine E. Disease of the Sugar-Beet Root. Proceedings of the Indiana Academy of Science, 1891, p. 92.

is one of the crucial points in determining the cause of a supposed bacterial disease.

Another report on this disease was published by Professor Arthur and Miss Golden in 1892.^a The presence of bacteria in great numbers in the diseased beet was again verified, but whether they were the real cause of the disease was not clearly established. Some portions of the description and the figures given would seem to indicate curly-top, but the great abundance of the organisms and the ease with which they could be seen and isolated would, on the other hand, seem to distinguish it from the disease which forms the subject of this paper, at least with reference to the cause or causes which produce the curly-top symptoms. Furthermore, Miss Golden states on page 93 of the article above referred to, describing the disease under investigation by her, that "during the early growth of the plants no difference can be seen between the diseased and healthy ones, but as they develop, the outer leaves of the diseased plants wither, while the heart leaves curl up much more than the normal, are dull in color, and the under side has a mottled appearance, causing the leaves to resemble somewhat those of the Savoy cabbage."

According to the writer's observations of the curly-top disease, the center or youngest leaves are the first to show the disease by their curled and puckered appearance. If the disease appears early in the life of the plant all the leaves may be affected, as shown in Plate III, figure 1. The leaves do not usually become dull in color and the outer ones do not necessarily wither or even wilt in the first stages of the disease, although they sometimes wilt and frequently become a few shades duller as the disease progresses. When examined by transmitted light, the leaves of curly-top beets often present a mottled appearance, but this is not usually to be observed by reflected light. Small but distinct elevations, of which no mention is made in the papers cited, are produced on the under surface of the curly-top leaves. (Pls. III, fig. 1, and IV, fig. 1.) Furthermore, no reference is made in these papers to an abnormal appearance of the roots of the diseased beets. In fact, the statement is made regarding what seems for some reasons to be curly-top in Indiana that the healthy and diseased roots can not be distinguished by any external characters. This may be true of the beets that are not affected until late in the season, but the roots of curly-top beets when attacked before the middle of the growing season are decidedly hairy, as shown in Plate I. Curly-top may be a bacterial disease, but certainly it does not seem to be due to an organism so easily seen and so readily separated as that in the disease described by Arthur and Golden.

^aArthur, J. C., and Golden, Katherine E. Diseases of the Sugar-Beet Root. Bulletin No. 39, part 3, Purdue University Agricultural Experiment Station, p. 54.

Dr. Erwin F. Smith,^a in charge of the Laboratory of Plant Pathology, Bureau of Plant Industry, in reviewing the work of Arthur and Golden expressed doubt in regard to bacteria being the cause of the disease of the sugar-beet root described by them and held that the trouble was curly-top. This led to a further study of this disease by Miss Cunningham.^b It was not clearly established by her investigations, however, that the disease found in Indiana is due primarily to bacteria. In summing up the results Miss Cunningham says,^c "Transfers of diseased tissue to the healthy beet root resulted in changed appearance of the plant which indicated almost certainly that the disease was transmitted." This still leaves the bacterial origin of the disease in doubt. Several citations to articles relating to bacterial diseases of the sugar beet were made by Miss Cunningham in connection with the article mentioned.^d

These diseases were referred to by Sorauer ^e as "bacterial gummosis," by Kramer ^f as "bacteriosis," and by Busse ^g as "gummosis" of the sugar beet, but judged by the descriptions given, these diseases do not seem to be curly-top.

Subsequent to the work done by Arthur, Golden, and Cunningham in this connection, Doctor Smith made numerous tube cultures and poured plates from the interior of diseased beets received from the Agricultural Experiment Station of Indiana, but with no definite results. Frequently the cultures were sterile; at other times a variety of organisms was obtained in small numbers, especially if the beets were somewhat wilted. It is evident, therefore, that with our present knowledge of the curly-top disease we should not designate it as a bacterial disease of the sugar beet.

The remaining names of the disease in general use refer to certain characters of the affected plants, and it is largely a matter of judgment which one is most suitable. The names most commonly in use are "blight" and "western blight." Either of these names might be used without confusion were it not for the fact that we have

^a Smith, Erwin F. The Bacterial Diseases of Plants, a Critical Review of the Present State of Our Knowledge. American Naturalist, vol. 30, p. 116, 1896.

^b Cunningham, Clara A. A Bacterial Disease of the Sugar Beet. Botanical Gazette, vol. 28, 1899.

^c Cunningham, Clara A., l. c., p. 188.

^d Cunningham, Clara A., l. c., p. 191.

^e Sorauer, Paul. Note at end of a review of some papers on a disease of sugar cane. Zeitschr. f. Pflanzenkrankheiten, vol. 1, part 6, p. 360, 1891.

^f Kramer, Ernst. Die Bacteriosis der Runkelrube (*Beta vulgaris* L.), eine neue Krankheit derselben. Oesterreichisches Landwirthschaftliches Centralblatt, vol. 1, part 2, pp. 30-36, and part 3, pp. 40-41, 1891.

^g Busse, Walter. Bakteriologische Studien über die "Gummosis" der Zuckerrüben. Zeitschr. f. Pflanzenkrankheiten, vol. 7, pp. 65-77 and 149-155, 1897.

in the middle and eastern parts of our sugar-beet area a true blight of the sugar beet due to the fungus *Cercospora beticola* Sacc. These might easily be distinguished as eastern and western blight of the sugar beet were it not for the circumstance that both may, and often do, occur in the same field in the middle part of the sugar-beet belt.

The objection to the term "stunted beets" lies in the fact that this abnormality may be produced without developing the other symptoms of curly-top; that is, a stunting of the beet may be brought about by causes which do not produce the other symptoms of curly-top, as shown in Plate X, figure 2. "Whiskered beets" and "hairy-root" both refer to the peculiarity of the beet shown in Plate I, in which the small rootlets are very greatly multiplied. While this character is always noticeable on curly-top beets, it sometimes occurs on beets that do not possess the other symptoms of curly-top, and it is therefore undoubtedly produced by some condition that does not cause the development of all the symptoms of curly-top. Furthermore, this peculiarity of curly-top beets is only to be observed when the beets are pulled up. On the other hand, the peculiar appearance of the leaves of beets affected with this disease is noticeable as one passes through a field of beets in which curly-top occurs. The writer has therefore proposed the name curly-top for lack of a better and more characteristic one, which it is hoped will be supplied when the real cause of the disease is known. This character of the diseased plant is easily recognized and, as already pointed out, usually appears during the early life of the plant, but may become apparent in the latter part of the first season's growth or even during the second season.

POSSIBLE CAUSES OF CURLY-TOP.

In different localities and under different soil and climatic conditions curly-top appears sometimes without any apparent cause and sometimes accompanied by parasites or abnormal conditions of soil and climate. Various theories have therefore been advanced in order to account for the occurrence of this disease in the various localities where it has appeared. Among the theories that seemed most plausible because of the conditions and circumstances attending the occurrence of the disease, and which have on that account received more or less consideration, are the following:

- (1) Bacteria.
- (2) Fungi attacking the leaves.
- (3) Fungi infesting the roots.
- (4) Insects.
- (5) Abnormal moisture supply.
- (6) Abnormal soil conditions other than moisture supply.

(7) Abnormal atmospheric conditions.

(8) Poor seed.

(9) A combination of unfavorable conditions.

The following is a brief description of the methods employed and the results obtained in studying these possible causes of curly-top.

BACTERIA.

The symptoms of curly-top as already described suggest at first the presence of some parasite as the cause of the disease. The writer has made many attempts to prove or disprove the bacterial theory of curly-top. Nutrient agar plates have been poured from different parts of diseased beets of different ages and under different conditions of growth. In only a few cases has an organism been isolated, and such organisms have not induced the symptoms of curly-top with certainty in any case, as already stated on page 11. Inoculations have been made into various parts of healthy beets of different ages and under field as well as greenhouse conditions.

It might be argued that the organism was not capable of growth on the culture media used, and therefore could not be separated in the usual way. With this possibility in mind, pieces of tissue were cut from different parts of distinctly diseased beets and inserted into incisions made in healthy beets of different ages and under different conditions of growth, but always with negative results under the conditions employed.

FUNGI.

FUNGI ATTACKING THE LEAVES.

The general appearance of curly-top beets indicates a more or less starved condition of the plant, although a chemical examination of the diseased plant does not show an absence of the necessary food material. It is possible, however, that the cells of the diseased plant are incapable of utilizing the material that it has taken up. This led to the theory that the leaves might for some reason fail to perform their proper function and thus the whole plant become starved.

One of the most serious natural injuries that has been observed as occurring on beet leaves is that produced by the fungus *Cercospora beticola* Sacc. Pure cultures of this fungus were obtained and the spores were sprayed upon healthy leaves until they became as thoroughly infested with the fungus as possible. No symptoms of curly-top appeared in any of the beets thus treated, either immediately after treatment or during any subsequent growth of the plant. Likewise in the fields where *Cercospora* was most prevalent, no cases of curly-top have been observed, even when the plants were almost entirely defoliated by the fungus.

In order to carry the theory of leaf injury to the farthest limit, several hundred sugar beets growing in the greenhouse had their leaves removed and were left otherwise undisturbed. (Pl. VII, fig. 1.) New tops were rapidly formed, all of which were in every respect perfectly normal. (Pl. VII, fig. 2.) The treatment was repeated in the field in the West, where curly-top has frequently been found. Some of the rows of beets selected for this purpose were entirely defoliated several times by means of a sharp knife with no apparent result except a marked retardation in the growth of the beets. Finally, in those localities where curly-top is most prevalent, the beet leaves suffer least from attacks of fungi and the atmospheric conditions are most favorable for the performance of the life functions of the leaf. If curly-top is due to any changed condition of the leaf, that condition is not induced by a reduction of the leaf surface or by the inability of the leaf cells to perform their normal functions.

FUNGI ATTACKING THE ROOTS.

In certain parts of the sugar beet area where curly-top is found more or less frequently, the soil is sometimes permeated with a fungus that grows close to the main root of the beet, often matting the fibrous or feeding roots together. This fungus often forms in the soil a network of white filaments easily seen with the unaided eye. Pure cultures of the fungus, which proved to be a species of *Fusarium*, were obtained in the laboratory. The same fungus was found in fields containing diseased roots in widely separated areas, even from different States. Inoculations were made with this fungus, beets of different ages from seedlings with only two leaves to plants two-thirds grown being used. These inoculations were made both in the greenhouse and in the field. In some instances the fungus was simply placed in contact with the healthy root, and with other plants incisions were made in the roots and the fungus placed in contact with the cut surfaces; but in none of the artificial inoculations did the fungus seem to penetrate the tissues of the beets, and no symptoms of curly-top were produced in any of the plants inoculated.

A quantity of soil was obtained from one of the fields where curly-top prevailed in 1905, and this has been used for two years in growing sugar beets in the Department greenhouses at Washington under a great variety of moisture and temperature conditions. In some instances the moisture has been applied to the surface of the soil only; in other cases the seed and resulting plants have been watered only from below. Some of the plants have been given an abundance of moisture, while others have received just sufficient to keep the soil barely moist enough to keep the plants active. The temperature has varied from 85° F. to 50° F., some of the plants remaining con-

stantly at a high temperature, others at a low temperature, and still others at an intermediate temperature. It is noticed that if the soil is allowed to become somewhat dry the fungus appears among the soil particles and around the roots of the plants, but in all of these experiments the only result noticed was a difference in the size of the plants. In no case were curly-top symptoms induced in any of the plants grown in this soil under the conditions used.

It should be added that the same fungus is often apparent in the soil, and even in contact with the beets, in fields where not a single case of curly-top can be found. Nevertheless, there may be conditions under which this or some other fungus in the soil may affect the beets directly or indirectly in such manner as to produce curly-top. In support of this theory is the fact that the writer has in a few instances found the mycelium of a *Fusarium* fungus actually growing into the tissue of the small roots of diseased beets. It can not be stated positively, however, that the disease is caused by a fungus until the disease can be produced at will by inoculations made from a pure culture of that fungus.

THE USE OF FUNGICIDES.

The fact that a fungus is found so frequently in connection with curly-top and that in a few instances a fungous mycelium has been found in the tissues of diseased beets has led to certain experiments with fungicides. The substances used were corrosive sublimate and copper sulphate. Solutions of different strengths were made and the roots of distinctly diseased beets were soaked in these solutions for different lengths of time.

The copper sulphate solution first used consisted of 1 part of copper sulphate in 3,000 parts of water by weight. One lot of beets was soaked in this for two minutes and another lot was soaked for five minutes. When removed from these solutions, the roots were all rinsed in distilled water. Upon examining these roots the following day, it was found that the fungus was not dead. The two lots of roots were again soaked for two minutes and five minutes, respectively, in the copper sulphate solution, 1 part of copper sulphate in 1,000 parts of water being used. This seemed to kill the fungus, and the beets were planted in 6-inch pots in the greenhouse.

The mercuric chlorid solution consisted of 1 part of mercuric chlorid in 1,000 parts of water by weight. One lot of beet roots was soaked in this solution two minutes and another lot was soaked five minutes, and both lots were then planted in 6-inch pots in the greenhouse. For comparison, a fifth lot of diseased beets was planted in 6-inch pots in the greenhouse without any treatment. A number of beets in each lot, including the controls, began after several weeks to

present leaves with broader and smoother leaf blades, and in from three to four months the leaves were normal in shape. Some beets in each lot, including all treated lots, retained the curly-top symptoms, although the fungus could not be found again upon the treated beets.

It has been observed repeatedly that beets with distinct curly-top symptoms frequently recover to all appearances when kept for several weeks under normal greenhouse conditions, while others under similar conditions retain the symptoms of curly-top for months. In the vicinity of Washington, D. C., the treatment with fungicides would indicate that the destruction of the fungus growing in contact with the beet does not influence the recovery of diseased plants.

It is not to be assumed that the foregoing treatments with fungicides are considered practical, even if they caused the diseased plants to recover. The experiments were undertaken wholly for the purpose of shedding light upon the possible relation of a fungus to the disease under investigation.

INSECTS.

Frequently curly-top is associated with some insect pest. This occurrence often leads the grower to the conclusion that the insect most prevalent upon the diseased beets is the cause of the disease. While one of the many insect pests that infest growing beets may be responsible for the disease, in the opinion of the writer this has not yet been demonstrated beyond doubt, although Doctor Ball, Director of the Utah Agricultural Experiment Station, who has done considerable work on this subject in cooperation with the Bureau of Entomology, holds that the so-called "white fly" is the cause of curly-top.^a

Frequently the curling of the leaves of curly-top beets seems to be due to a failure of certain portions of the leaf tissues to develop beyond a certain stage, as shown in the younger leaves in Plate III, figures 1 and 2, while certain other leaf cells seem to make an abnormal growth, causing the development of projections on the lower leaf surface, as shown in sections of leaves in Plate IV, figure 1. Whether or not these and other abnormal characters of curly-top beets are due in any way to the work of insects can only be determined by further investigations.

^a Ball, E. D. The Genus *Eutettix*. Proceedings of the Davenport Academy of Sciences, vol. 12, pp. 41 and 84 and plate 4, July, 1907. The Beet Leaf-Hopper, 16th Annual Report, Utah Agricultural Experiment Station, June, 1905, p. 16.

ABNORMAL MOISTURE SUPPLY.

ENTIRE SEED BED TOO DRY.

If one studies the curly-top disease in a restricted locality for a single season he will almost certainly be misled in his conclusions. With reference to no conditions attending the appearance of curly-top is this more generally true than with the moisture condition of the soil. In some localities where curly-top has been especially prevalent during certain seasons the seed bed has been particularly dry, so that the seeds germinated slowly and unevenly and the seedlings started with difficulty. As all other conditions so far as observed seemed favorable, it was fair to conclude that this one unfavorable condition was responsible for the diseased condition of the beets. However, if one continues his observations in another locality or into another season he will find cases of curly-top in fields where the moisture conditions were entirely favorable for germination.

In order to investigate this point still further, greenhouse experiments were conducted in which the minimum amount of moisture was used to germinate the seed, with the result that the seed was slower in germinating, but the seedlings, if given a sufficient supply of water, grew normally. If only a minimum amount of water was given the seedlings, they remained abnormally small, but otherwise showed no symptoms of curly-top. (Pl. X, fig. 2.)

INSUFFICIENT SUPPLY OF MOISTURE AT TAPROOT.

During the first few years in which curly-top was most destructive it occurred only in those localities in which there was a scarcity of moisture, and the diseased beets had the appearance of plants suffering from a lack of moisture. This led several observers, including the writer,^a to arrive at the conclusion that curly-top is due to a lack of moisture at the taproot of the beet. Subsequent observations in the field and carefully conducted experiments in the greenhouse have demonstrated that whatever may be the cause of curly-top it is not lack of moisture alone.

In order to demonstrate more conclusively the effect of an insufficient water supply, a number of seedling beets were started in the greenhouse in large pots of earth. Some of these plants were given a sufficient quantity of water so that they were constantly supplied with moisture, some being watered entirely from below so that the taproot was constantly supplied, while others had the water applied only to the surface of the soil. Still a third set of plants started at

^a Townsend, C. O. Some Diseases of the Sugar Beet. Report No. 72, United States Department of Agriculture, Progress of the Beet Sugar Industry in the United States, 1901, p. 90.

the same time and under identical conditions received only enough moisture to keep them alive, and this was applied to the surface of the soil, the object being not to give sufficient water at a time to permit it to soak down and moisten the soil around the taproot. The results are shown in Plate X, figure 2, in which the dwarf plant (*C*) received only enough water to keep it alive. The leaves were normal except in size and the roots showed none of the curly-top symptoms.

ENTIRE SEED BED TOO WET.

The observations of recent years seem to prove that too much moisture during the early part of the season might possibly be responsible for the appearance of curly-top. However, a series of observations in different localities shows that a wet seed bed may do considerable damage to the stand by causing the seed to rot and the seedlings to damp-off, but this is not necessarily accompanied by curly-top.

Greenhouse experiments along the same lines have demonstrated that an excess of moisture during the early life of the plant will not produce the disease. Likewise, a very wet seed bed not followed by the addition of moisture either in the form of rain or artificially applied does not, according to the observations made by the writer, insure freedom from curly-top in all cases. The distribution of diseased plants in the field, scattered as they frequently are here and there among the healthy beets, would prove that a seed bed too wet could not alone be responsible for the occurrence of diseased plants. Dr. Wilhelmj^a is of the opinion that curly-top is closely connected with water supply, but this point does not seem to have been established by actual experiment and, as has already been indicated, one may reach almost any conclusion by extending or limiting his observations.

MOISTURE SUPPLY TOO VARIABLE.

In some of the irrigated sections where a limited amount of water is divided among a large number of growers, it sometimes happens that too much time elapses between the irrigations, so that the beets suffer for a longer or shorter period from lack of moisture. When the water is obtained the beets are given as much moisture as the ground will hold with the hope of being able to keep them supplied until water can be obtained again from the ditch. Under these conditions curly-top has sometimes appeared.

In order to determine the relation of variable moisture conditions to this disease, beets have been made to pass through their extremes

^a Wilhelmj, A. Eine Eigenartige Rübenkrankheit. Zeitschrift des Vereins der Deutschen Zucker-Industrie, April, 1907.

of moisture and drought, the wet and dry conditions being carried farther and for a longer period in the experiment than in actual practice. The results have been only dwarfed plants without any curly-top symptoms. These experiments, combined with many field observations of beet growing in which there was great variation in moisture supply, sometimes entirely unaccompanied by curly-top, lead to the conclusion that this condition alone is not sufficient to produce the disease.

WATER TOO COLD WHEN APPLIED TO PLANT.

Since irrigation streams are frequently supplied with large quantities of water produced from melted snow, especially in the early spring, and since the young plants are most frequently affected with curly-top, the theory has been advanced that the early irrigation waters are too cold. It is difficult to understand how cold water could induce curly-top in a few beets here and there throughout a field, and yet it is not impossible when we consider the individuality of the beet. It is likewise difficult to explain under this theory the late cases of disease that appear in the middle and latter part of the summer.

However, in order to dispel all doubt in regard to the matter several series of beets were started in the greenhouse, and as soon as the seedlings appeared they were watered with ice water only. In some of the experiments the plants were watered with ice water every day or every two days, while in other experiments the interval between waterings was longer. These experiments were continued for several weeks without producing any curly-top symptoms.

It might be added as further evidence against this theory that one field which has been under the writer's observation for the seasons of 1905 and 1906 is irrigated with water from warm springs, yet each season a few cases of curly-top have appeared. Hence, cold water applied at any time during the growth of the plants is not the primary cause of curly-top.

ABNORMAL SOIL CONDITIONS.

SEED BED TOO COLD.

It is well known that a damp, cold seed bed has a marked influence upon the germination and growth of plants. There is a strong desire on the part of seed growers to plant their seed as early as possible, so as to give the plants a long season to grow and also to be able to harvest the beets before cold weather sets in. This practice sometimes leads the growers to plant before the ground is warmed to a normal planting temperature. While this condition has not always preceded an outbreak of curly-top, it has sometimes been associated

with it, so it was decided to test the effect of a cold seed bed upon the growth of beets. Accordingly, an air cooler was installed in a small room in which the temperature could be controlled within certain limits. Boxes of soil were placed at different distances from the cold-air generator and also at different distances from the floor, and the soil was maintained at such temperature that germination and growth proceeded with difficulty. An insufficient supply of light in the room used for the work prevented the experiment from being entirely satisfactory, but during the several weeks that the plants lived they showed no signs of producing curly-top symptoms.

SEED BED TOO WARM.

The fact that the later plantings are the ones that are occasionally most severely attacked by curly-top raised the question with some growers as to the possibility of a too warm seed bed being the cause of the disease. In considering all the conditions under which curly-top is produced, especially the frequency of the disease in seed beds that are not above normal temperature, one must conclude that excessive warmth of the seed bed does not produce curly-top.

To test artificially the effect of an abnormal temperature, some seedling beets growing in pots of earth were placed near the furnace, where the temperature which was recorded daily from a maximum and minimum thermometer varied between 72° and 104° F. While the plants made very little growth, owing to the excessive heat, they showed no signs of curly-top even after several weeks.

SUBSOIL TOO HARD.

In some localities where curly-top has appeared, a hard subsoil has been found to exist so close to the surface of the ground that the beet roots grow down and come into contact with it without being able to penetrate it. This condition does not obtain in all places where curly-top has been found. Indeed, the disease frequently occurs in localities where the soil is of a rich loamy nature to the depth of several feet. Furthermore, in many localities where there is a hardpan underlying a shallow soil, beets grow without developing curly-top. The beets produced under these conditions may be dwarfed, they may extend abnormally out of the ground, or they may have sprangled roots, but these abnormalities do not necessarily accompany curly-top.

LACK OF AVAILABLE PLANT FOOD IN THE SOIL.

The apparent inability of curly-top beets to grow even where temperature and moisture conditions are known to be normal led some of the growers to assume that curly-top is due to a lack of avail-

able plant food in the soil. The inability of the badly diseased beets to grow would indicate either that the diseased plants were unable to take in the necessary plant food from the soil, from the atmosphere, or from both of these sources, or that having absorbed the necessary food material the plants were unable because of their diseased condition to assimilate it.

Experience has shown that plants growing in poor soil are no more susceptible to curly-top than those grown in rich soil. Further proof of the incorrectness of this theory is found in the fact that fields in which beets are utterly destroyed one season will without the application of any plant food produce a good yield and quality of perfectly healthy beets the following season. This has been demonstrated in actual practice under the writer's observation every season during the past six years. In one locality several thousand acres of beets were entirely destroyed by curly-top in 1903. The following season a large part of this area was replanted, and in every instance a most satisfactory crop of beets was obtained, the most diligent search failing to reveal a single case of curly-top. Many of these fields received no special treatment for the crop of 1904, and if there had been a lack of plant food during the season when the disease was prevalent it is fair to assume that there would have been the same lack of available plant food the following season. Again, a lack of available plant food would not affect 50 per cent of the beets in a field and leave the remaining ones perfectly healthy, especially with the two kinds scattered about over the entire area and standing, as they frequently do, within 8 or 10 inches of each other.

Plate X, figure 1, shows the fourteenth consecutive crop of beets on the same field without a single case of curly-top. Furthermore, sugar beets are frequently grown on soils that have become apparently exhausted by numerous grain crops; but it is very seldom that any cases of curly-top are found in these fields. Curly-top may be due to a starved condition of the beets, but if so the trouble is with the beet and not with the soil in which it grows.

LACK OF HUMUS IN THE SOIL.

The two main sources of humus for the irrigated lands of the West are stable manure and alfalfa. The small amount of stable manure produced as compared with the large area to be supplied with humus makes it impossible to obtain enough humus from this source to put the soil in the proper physical condition. Formerly it was customary with many farmers to let the alfalfa fields remain undisturbed for a long series of years if they continued to furnish a paying quantity of alfalfa. Under such conditions many of the other cultivated field

crops suffered for want of humus, and the same conditions prevail in some localities at present, though many farmers now use alfalfa as a rotation crop, plowing it under after only three or four years. However, the scarcity of humus, especially in earlier years, has sometimes been associated with curly-top, a circumstance which led to the advancement of the theory that the scarcity of humus was the cause of the disease.

Observations of more recent years have tended to discredit this theory. For example, in some of the extensive wheat-growing areas of the West it has sometimes been customary to grow wheat after wheat for a number of years, in some cases even until the yield was no longer profitable. During these years of wheat growing, frequently no humus was added to the soil except the small amount furnished by the stubble. If, now, beets are grown in this soil the first crop will be poor; that is, the beets will be small but no curly-top will necessarily appear. The second crop of beets will be better than the first, and the third crop will be better than the second, even without the addition of any humus, but in no case will there be any curly-top that can be attributed to the lack of humus. On the contrary, curly-top has been found in more recent years just as frequently in fields well supplied with humus as in those that are deficient in this material. Furthermore, the fact that beets will thrive without the addition of humus in fields where they were entirely destroyed the previous season by curly-top is proof that the lack of humus alone is not the cause of this disease.

TOO MUCH ALKALI IN THE SOIL.

Many growers of beets in the more alkaline regions have associated curly-top with the presence of alkali. It is well known that the amount of alkali in certain layers of the soil varies from season to season and from time to time during the same season. Without any means of determining the amount of alkali in the soil it was assumed that the alkali was especially abundant in those spots or localities where the disease appeared. More recent observations have shown that the soil may contain a sufficient quantity of alkali to kill the plants without producing curly-top, and even if the quantity of alkali present is not sufficient to destroy the life of the plant, but only to interfere with its normal functions, a dwarfed plant will result, but none of the curly-top symptoms is necessarily produced. On the other hand, curly-top has been frequently observed in localities where an abnormal amount of alkali is not present at any time during the season.

Several series of greenhouse experiments were conducted to supplement the field observations in regard to alkali in relation to curly-

top. In these experiments sodium chlorid and sodium carbonate solutions were used. The solutions were made up in four strengths, namely, 1 part of the salt to 1,000 parts of water, 1 part of the salt to 500 parts of water, 1 part of the salt to 100 parts of water, and a saturated solution.

The plants treated varied from seedlings 2 weeks old to beets 10 weeks old. With the seedlings, 10 c. c. of the solution were applied at a time; with the older plants, from 20 to 50 c. c. of the solution were given each beet at each application. The dilute solutions were applied to the plants daily for thirty-two days. Some of the plants died, while others remained alive, but assumed a yellowish tint without showing any signs of curly-top. The seedlings that received the saturated solutions all began to wilt within thirty minutes after the solution was applied. Several of the plants died without showing any tendency to recover, while others began to revive in from five to seven days and continued alive for several weeks with the appearance of normal beets. In the case of the older plants, the dilute solutions made no appreciable difference in their appearance or growth, while the saturated solution caused the leaves to assume a slightly paler tint, but in no case did the characteristic symptoms of curly-top develop.

SOIL TOO ACID.

While the Bureau of Soils was making a survey of one of the important sugar-beet localities in California in 1901,^a certain observations were made regarding the relation between the acidity of the soil and the blight, or curly-top. It was noted by Messrs. Lapham and Heileman, who had direct charge of the survey of the area mentioned, that many of the soils in the valley under observation were either neutral or slightly acid and that few of the soils showed even a slight effervescence with hydrochloric acid, indicating either a very small amount of carbonate of lime or none. They observed further that the soil was acid in those fields where the disease occurred in that locality and that the disease did not occur in this locality in any soil that was alkaline to litmus. These observations naturally led Messrs. Lapham and Heileman to the conclusion that the deficiency of lime as carbonate gives rise to a neutral or slightly acid condition of the soil, which is a very important, if not the most important, factor in the cause of beet blight, or curly-top. As indicated, however, under the preceding theory, an alkaline condition of the soil does not prevent attacks of curly-top. Field observations and experi-

^a Lapham, M. H., and Heileman, W. H. Field Operations of the Bureau of Soils, Department of Agriculture. Soil Survey of the Lower Salinas Valley, California, 1901, p. 506.

ments indicate that applications of lime, whether light or heavy, will not prevent curly-top. It is possible, however, that under some circumstances an acidity of the soil may be a factor in producing curly-top.

IMPROPER PREPARATION OF THE SEED BED.

A properly prepared seed bed is one that is plowed at the right time, under proper conditions of moisture, and to the correct depth without turning up too much raw soil. It must be worked at such time and in such manner as to conserve the moisture and to produce a firm seed bed below, with a fine mulch about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick on the surface. Owing to the many conditions to be fulfilled in properly preparing a bed for beet seed, it is not surprising that in many of the fields in which curly-top has appeared one or more of these conditions have not been fulfilled. This was especially true several years ago, before beet growing was as well understood as it is at the present time.

This theory was suggested by the appearance of curly-top in certain fields, while in other fields in the same locality differently prepared to receive the seed, the disease was absent. More extended observations and experiments teach us that plants growing in the most thoroughly prepared seed bed are sometimes seriously affected with the disease. Again, the distribution of the diseased plants in the field, as previously mentioned, contradicts this theory.

IMPROPER CULTIVATION OF THE BEETS.

This may include both the time of cultivation and the method employed. It is generally conceded that cultivation should be begun as soon as the rows can be followed, but in regard to the depth of cultivation and the distance that the cultivator teeth should be kept from the plants there is considerable difference of opinion among beet growers. One of the strongest arguments against the belief that lack of cultivation may be a cause of the disease is to be found in the abandoned or neglected beet fields which one occasionally finds here and there in different parts of the sugar-beet belt, inasmuch as these abandoned fields are frequently free from curly-top. If the method of cultivation is a factor in producing the disease, it is presumably because of the injury to the side roots due to deep or close cultivation or to both deep and close cultivation. We find that deep and close cultivation are practiced just as frequently in the areas where curly-top has never appeared as they are in those areas where the disease has been most destructive.

By way of experiment a number of beets of different ages were injured by cutting the side roots with a large knife. The results so far as curly-top is concerned were negative.

The first operation in caring for the beets after they are up is that of thinning. It is well known that any delay in performing this operation will result in a decrease in the yield of beets to the acre, but so far as can be ascertained by field observations and greenhouse experiments the delay does not produce any of the symptoms of curly-top.

INSUFFICIENT SUPPLY OF AIR AROUND THE ROOTS.

It is well known that the roots of land plants must receive a sufficient quantity of air in order to produce a normal growth of the plant. The appearance of curly-top in many fields where a crust had formed on the surface of the soil led some observer to think that this disease might be due to a lack of air around the roots. A study of curly-top in other localities established the fact that the disease is not confined to those fields where a crust has formed on the surface, nor even to those localities where the soil is of such a nature that the crust forms readily under the conditions that prevail during the early life of the plants.

In some instances curly-top has appeared in localities where there was an excessive supply of moisture in the early part of the season. This led to the suggestion that too much moisture at the taproot, if continued for some time, might produce curly-top by cutting off the air supply. In some of the many sections of the sugar-beet area certain seasons have been excessively wet. Some fields not properly drained have been for a number of days under water. This abnormal condition, if of sufficient duration, invariably results in a weakened condition of the beets, as indicated by the yellow color of their leaves, a state from which they may eventually recover to a considerable extent if normal conditions are restored and allowed to continue. In no case where these excessive rainfalls have occurred and abnormally wet conditions have prevailed for several weeks have any symptoms of curly-top been observed.

Curly-top usually occurs in the irrigated sections, where the danger of excessive moisture is, of course, at a minimum. In the greenhouse this abnormally wet condition of the taproot has been repeated with plants of different ages and at different temperatures with similar negative results. As already pointed out, curly-top often appears in those fields where the soil is well drained and under thorough cultivation and thrives where the conditions for a proper air supply are best. While a lack of air around the roots may be a secondary factor in producing curly-top, it certainly is not the primary cause of this disease.

ABNORMAL ATMOSPHERIC CONDITIONS.

ATMOSPHERE TOO COLD AT TIME OF GERMINATION.

The experiment just described served also to illustrate the effect of a cold atmosphere upon the young beet plants. Aside from retarded growth, no abnormal symptoms were observed. Frequently in the field one finds that the desire to plant early leads to the production of seedling beets before the cold nights are over, so that the young plants are subjected to extremes of temperature. While these conditions have sometimes been followed by a more or less severe outbreak of curly-top, there have been so many exceptions that one is led to the conclusion that no relation exists between curly-top and the cold atmosphere.

HOT, DRY WINDS.

In many fields where curly-top appears, windbreaks are to be found along one side of the field. These windbreaks may consist simply of a fence, or of a row of trees, or of a field of grain. It has been frequently observed that the beets growing close to the windbreak, and therefore most completely protected from winds, are least affected by curly-top. (Pl. IX, fig. 1.) These observations lead to the theory that hot, dry winds blowing over the beet fields, as they often do nearly every day at certain hours in some localities, induce the disease.

In order to produce as nearly as possible the same conditions artificially, a number of seedling beets were started in pots in the greenhouse, and when firmly established were placed in the laboratory engine room, where the heated air from the boiler could be blown over the plants. This was accomplished by arranging an electric fan on the same level with the plants and allowing the fan to blow the hot air from the boiler over them for several hours each day. The plants were supplied with an abundance of moisture and all other conditions were normal, except that the light was not as intense as it would have been in the open. Several sets of plants were treated from two to four weeks in the manner described. Some of the plants died, presumably from the treatment, but in no case did any symptoms of curly-top appear, either during the treatment described or during the subsequent life of those plants that were returned to the greenhouse alive. Therefore, the experiments thus far conducted along this line indicate that hot winds alone are not the cause of curly-top. At the same time it is difficult to explain why it is that the healthier beets are frequently found in the more protected localities. One exception to this general rule was observed during the summer of 1906 on the Department experimental farm at Amarillo, Tex. About one acre

of beets was grown for experimental purposes, and that part of the plot best protected from the prevailing winds by a plot of sorghum contained many specimens of curly-top.

POOR SEED.

More frequently than any other one factor in sugar-beet growing, the quality of the seed has been held responsible by the growers for the outbreaks of curly-top. Many of the men who hold to this theory have no definite idea in regard to what constitutes the particular poor quality of the seed that causes curly-top to develop. Some growers, however, believe that there is in some seeds an inherited tendency toward the disease, while others maintain that small or poorly developed seeds produce weak plants that are unable to grow in a normal manner and are therefore easily attacked by disease.

Whatever view is held in regard to the details of this theory, the distribution of the diseased plants in the field—a badly diseased plant often standing within a few inches of a perfectly healthy one—would tend to support the poor-seed theory. On the other hand, we find a number of circumstances that appear to render this theory impossible. In 1903 curly-top destroyed 50 per cent of the beets in a certain locality, and the seed used was a part of a shipment the remainder of which was used, according to good authority, in two other localities. In the second and third localities where this seed was used practically no curly-top developed. It should be further noted that some fields in the badly diseased locality were entirely free from curly-top, although they were planted with seed from the same shipment. If all fields and all localities in which this seed was used had been equally affected we would have strong proof of the poor-seed theory.

In 1904 certain fields reported to have been planted from the same sack of seed were variously affected, some being very badly diseased and others practically not at all. If curly-top is due to the quality of the seed, it would be difficult to explain why some seed beets show curly-top symptoms during the second year's growth when they were to all appearances perfectly healthy during the first season of their existence.

In experiments with small seeds as compared with large ones, the plants in both cases have been equally free from curly-top. In these experiments it must be remembered that the size of the seed ball does not indicate the size of the individual seed. This latter point can be determined only by close examination of the seeds to be used.

Finally, the same quality of seed is generally used in different parts of the sugar-beet area. If curly-top is due to inferior seed it will be necessary to find some explanation for the entire absence of curly-top

in certain portions of the sugar-beet area. Whatever the cause of curly-top may be, the bulk of the evidence indicates that the quality of the seed is not the primary factor in its development.

COMBINATION OF UNFAVORABLE CONDITIONS.

Negative results in matters like the foregoing are conclusive only so far as they relate to existing conditions and circumstances, and it must be remembered that under other conditions the same agent or factor might give positive results. Therefore, it can be stated with certainty only that the factors discussed are not responsible for curly-top under the circumstances and conditions under which the observations and experiments were made; that is, there may be conditions not yet investigated in which the fungus, for example, may produce the curly-top symptoms. Or it may be that some fungus other than the one isolated may yet be found to be responsible for the disease. In considering the possible factors that might cause curly-top, many combinations of unfavorable conditions have been suggested and many of them have been investigated. In this connection the theories mentioned may conveniently be considered under the following groups, namely: Parasites, soil conditions, weather conditions, cultural conditions, and seed.

The bacterial and fungus parasites isolated have been tested; that is, inoculations have been made into healthy beets of different ages, from seedlings a few days old to beets one-half to two-thirds grown. Both field and greenhouse conditions have been tried; the field conditions under various methods of irrigation, the greenhouse conditions under different degrees of temperature and moisture. Various combinations of soil conditions have been made, dry and moist soil being used at temperatures varying from 80° F. to 50° F. Dry and moist soils were combined with hot, dry winds, and consequently hot, dry winds were combined with dry and moist soils. The same seed was tried under different conditions of soil with respect to dryness and moisture, with respect to alkalinity and acidity, and with respect to temperature and time of planting. In none of the combinations of unfavorable conditions that have been tried have any indications of curly-top traceable to these conditions been produced. It is entirely possible that some combination of conditions will be found that will produce the curly-top symptoms. However, the matter does not seem as simple to the writer as it is expressed by Doctor Wilhelmj ^a when he says the beets do not become diseased whether they have a great deal of moisture or none at all in the form of rain during the first part of their growing period, but that they do

^a Wilhelmj, A., l. c., p. 432.

become diseased if a hard rain falls after a period of drought. It is undoubtedly true that the digestion of curly-top beets has become abnormal, as Doctor Wilhelmj states,^a but the cause of this disturbance has, in the writer's opinion, not yet been established.

NONCONSECUTIVE APPEARANCE OF CURLY-TOP.

One of the most important facts in regard to curly-top is that it very seldom appears two consecutive years in the same locality. During the six years that this disease has been under observation by the writer it has been destructive during two consecutive years in but one locality, and in this case the relative number of diseased beets was not nearly so great the second year as it was the first. In general, it may be said that the appearance of curly-top in a given locality one season does not in any way endanger the crop for the following year. As previously stated, the locality in which curly-top was so destructive in 1903 had an exceptionally good crop in 1904, practically no cases of curly-top being found even in the fields in which the beets were entirely destroyed the preceding year.

BEETS RESISTANT TO CURLY-TOP.

The distribution of healthy beets among diseased ones in many badly infested fields, as shown in Plate IX, figure 2, would seem to indicate that certain beets are resistant to curly-top. For the purpose of breeding plants resistant to this disease, several hundred healthy beets were selected and siloed. Care was taken to find healthy beets that were growing close to badly diseased ones, so that in case of possible communicability of the disease we would have those that were unmistakably resistant. Selections of this kind were made in different localities in 1902, 1903, and 1904. In each case the siloed beets came through the winter in good condition for planting, and very nearly all of them produced seed which was of good quality. The difficulty in determining whether or not the seed would produce beets resistant to curly-top was found in the fact that it is impossible to predict where the disease will occur in any given season. It has never been serious in more than three or four localities at one time, and these more or less restricted; and the fact already pointed out that it practically never occurs two years in succession in the same locality makes it impossible to know where to grow the beets to determine whether or not they are resistant to curly-top. Even if we knew in what locality the disease would occur, the fact that adjacent fields or different parts of the same field are affected to very different degrees so far as the appearance of the disease is concerned would still render the problem impossible of solution from this standpoint. Again, it would seem that plantings made in any locality just as soon

as the disease makes its appearance ought to help in determining the resistance of plants; but observation has shown that plantings made with the same seed, but a few days before or after certain badly diseased fields were planted, are frequently but slightly if at all affected with curly-top.

At one of our sugar-beet stations where a quantity of seed selected for curly-top resistance was planted along with twenty-five other varieties and strains, some curly-top beets were found in each plot. This seed was all planted on April 22, 1907, and each plot received the same treatment throughout the season. At the end of the growing season a careful count of all the curly-top beets found among each of the twenty-six varieties and strains grown on equal areas showed that for every 10.7 beets affected with curly-top found among those grown from seed selected for curly-top resistance there were from 22 to 124 among the other twenty-five varieties and strains not selected for resistance. A large number of selections were made from the plot that indicated curly-top resistance, and this strain will be perpetuated and improved with a view to making it entirely resistant to curly-top.

COMMUNICABILITY OF CURLY-TOP.

All evidence thus far obtained is against the transmission of curly-top from plant to plant by any known means. In the field we find beets badly diseased growing side by side with others to all appearances perfectly healthy. It is not uncommon for this condition to exist throughout the season. Furthermore, several instances have been observed by the writer in which two plants have been found growing in close contact with each other, one showing all the symptoms of curly-top and the other presenting a perfectly normal appearance. This state of contact continued throughout the season without developing any curly-top symptoms in the healthy beet. Bits of tissue have been cut from diseased beets and inserted in incisions made in different parts of healthy beet roots, but in no case has curly-top developed under the conditions used. No definite conclusion can be reached regarding the point, however, until the exact cause of curly-top is known.

PERSISTENCE OF CURLY-TOP.

In almost all cases, beets that have become unmistakably affected with curly-top either die from the effects of the disease before the end of the season or, if the beets continue to live throughout the season, as they frequently do unless the outbreak is very severe, the curly-top symptoms remain apparent. No amount of special attention seems to be effective in restoring the diseased beets to a normal condition so long as they remain in the field where they were first attacked. In

some instances if they are taken up and removed to some other soil they seem to recover after several weeks, so far as the appearance of the leaves is concerned. Thus, a badly diseased beet transplanted to a greenhouse of the Department of Agriculture in August, 1902, was photographed six months later, showing the flat leaves commonly found on healthy beets. (Pl. VI, fig. 2.) This change does not always take place, however, even when the beets have been placed under different climatic conditions and transplanted into entirely different soil.

Some badly diseased beets planted in the greenhouse in August, 1905, still retained their curly-top symptoms even at the end of eight months. If the diseased leaves are removed the new set produced shows all the leaf symptoms of curly-top. If the new set of leaves is in turn removed the third set may be as badly affected as the first or second, as demonstrated by repeated experiments in the greenhouse and in the field. If the beets are left in the field and given special attention in the way of irrigation, cultivation, etc., the curly-top continues to develop in the same way and to the same extent as in the adjacent rows where the beets have received no special attention.

SUMMARY.

Curly-top is not identical with any disease of the beet previously described, except possibly that described from Indiana.

It is a distinct disease with well-marked symptoms.

It has not been reported with certainty from any country other than the United States.

It has thus far been confined to the middle and western parts of this country.

It is capable of appearing under a great variety of soil and climatic conditions.

It does not seem to be produced by any one abnormal condition of soil or climate.

It does not seem to be due to any parasite isolated thus far.

It does not seem to be due to the condition of the seed.

It attacks stock and garden beets as well as sugar beets.

It is not limited to beets of any particular age.

It does not seem to be communicated directly from beet to beet.

It has not appeared to any serious extent two years in succession in the same locality.

There are indications that a strain of beets resistant to curly-top may be developed.

Growers need not hesitate to plant beets in a field even though their entire crop of beets in that field was destroyed by curly-top the preceding year.

PLATES.

122

33

DESCRIPTION OF PLATES.

- PLATE I. (*Frontispiece.*)** A sugar beet four months old, showing the usual external symptoms of curly-top—the curled and twisted leaves with greatly shortened stems and poorly developed blades, but abnormal in number; also the excessive development of side roots on the dwarfed main root. (Natural size.)
- PLATE II.** A healthy sugar beet four months old for comparison with the diseased beet shown in Plate I. (About one-fifth natural size.)
- PLATE III.** Fig. 1.—Leaves from a sugar beet three months old affected with curly-top; one leaf from each whorl. The rough lower surfaces are apparent as well as the short petioles and undeveloped and twisted blades. (About three-fourths natural size.) Fig. 2.—Leaves from a healthy beet of the same age as that shown in figure 1; one leaf from each whorl. The young leaves are not yet fully expanded. (About one-fourth natural size.)
- PLATE IV.** Fig. 1.—Cross section of a healthy leaf through a vein, showing the position of the tissues. Fig. 2.—Section of a leaf through a vein of a curly-top leaf, showing the abnormal position of the fibro-vascular bundle and the unnatural cell development producing among other changes the projections on the lower surface of the leaf.
- PLATE V.** Fig. 1.—Cross sections of a sugar beet four months old affected with curly-top. The cuts were made at intervals of 1 inch, beginning 1 inch from the crown. The rings of fibro-vascular bundles show the dark color characteristic of curly-top. The rings are more striking in the larger part of the beet; each section, however, has the dark color. (About natural size.) Fig. 2.—Cross sections of a healthy sugar beet of same size as that shown in figure 1. Fibro-vascular bundles are apparent, but are not dark. The photographs for both figures were taken one hour after cutting. The sections for figure 2 were made at intervals of 1 inch, beginning 1 inch from the crown, as in figure 1. (About natural size.)
- PLATE VI.** Fig. 1.—Longitudinal section of a sugar beet four months old affected with curly-top, showing how the dark fibro-vascular bundles are continuous throughout the length of the plant. (About four-fifths natural size.) Fig. 2.—A sugar beet that was obtained in August, 1903, at which time it had all the symptoms of curly-top shown in Plate I. This photograph was made seven months later, and the leaves have almost no curled appearance. The plant appears to have recovered from the curly-top. (About two-sevenths natural size.)
- PLATE VII.** Fig. 1.—Beets six weeks old defoliated just above the crown by means of a sharp knife. Conditions for growth remain normal. Fig. 2.—The same plants four weeks later, showing new vigorous tops free from even the slightest symptom of curly-top.
- PLATE VIII.** Fig. 1.—Garden beets four months old showing symptoms of curly-top. These beets were in a row on south side of seed beets among which were a number of cases of curly-top. Fig. 2.—Garden beets from same row showing no sign of curly-top.
- PLATE IX.** Fig. 1.—Field that was planted to sugar beets and a good stand obtained. Curly-top has destroyed all the beets in the foreground. In the remainder of the field there are many cases of curly-top, but the beets continue to live. Fig. 2.—Field of beets affected with curly-top, showing the possibilities of selection for curly-top resistance. Not more than 1 per cent of these beets are free from curly-top.
- PLATE X.** Fig. 1.—Field showing the fourteenth consecutive crop of beets free from curly-top, proving that successive planting of beets without crop rotation will not of itself produce the disease. Figure 2 represents three plants (*A, B, C*) which received treatment as follows: *A* received an abundant supply of water from below only, *B* received an abundant supply of water from the surface only, and *C* received just enough water to keep the plant alive, but never enough at any one time to soak down to the taproot. The plant *C*, although small, is in all respects perfectly healthy; that is, it possesses no symptoms of curly-top, which shows that an absence of moisture from the taproot is not a condition which in itself will produce curly-top. Plants *A, B*, and *C* are of exactly the same age. (About one-eighth natural size.)
- PLATE XI.** Fig. 1.—Stem of seed beet affected with curly-top. This plant showed no indication of curly-top during its first season's growth. Fig. 2.—Stem of healthy seed beet for comparison with that shown in figure 1.



A HEALTHY SUGAR BEET FOUR MONTHS OLD.
(About one-fifth natural size.)

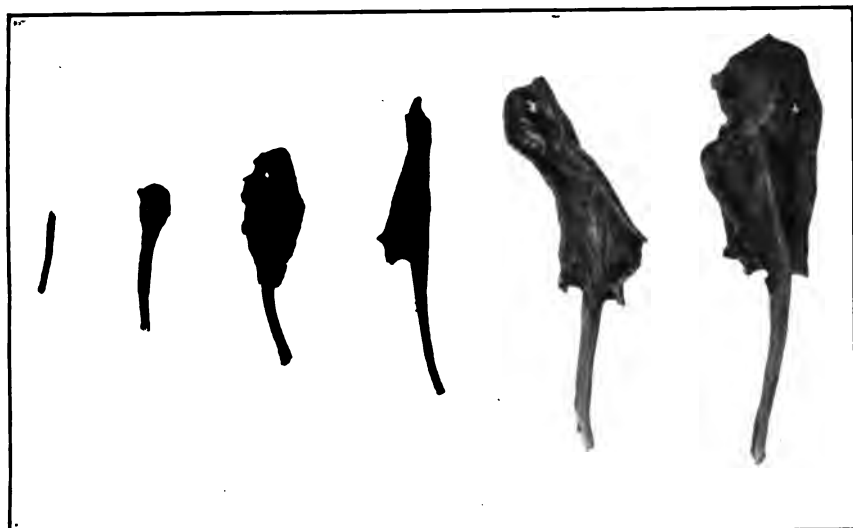


FIG. 1.—LEAVES FROM A SUGAR BEET THREE MONTHS OLD AFFECTED WITH CURLY-TOP.
(About three-fourths natural size.)

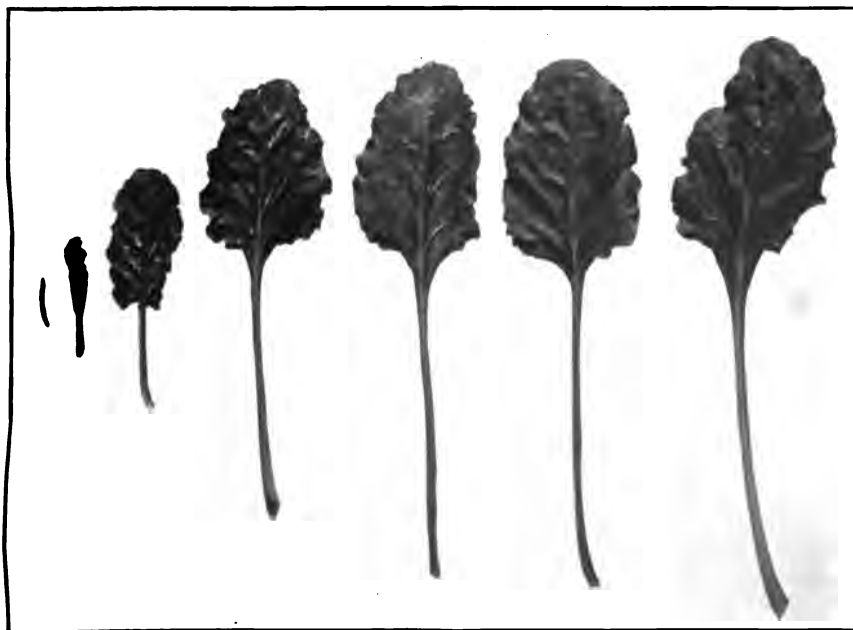


FIG. 2.—LEAVES FROM A HEALTHY SUGAR BEET THREE MONTHS OLD.
(About one-fourth natural size.)



FIG. 1.—CROSS SECTION THROUGH A VEIN OF A BEET LEAF AFFECTED WITH CURLY-TOP.

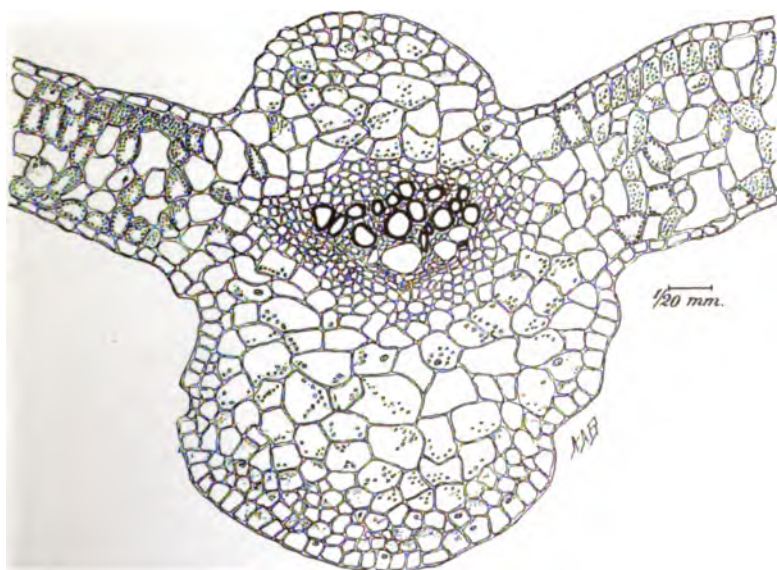


FIG. 2.—CROSS SECTION THROUGH A VEIN OF A HEALTHY BEET LEAF.



**FIG. 1.—CROSS SECTIONS OF A SUGAR BEET
FOUR MONTHS OLD AFFECTED WITH
CURLY-TOP.**

(About natural size.)



**FIG. 2.—CROSS SECTIONS OF A HEALTHY
SUGAR BEET THREE MONTHS OLD.**

(About natural size.)



FIG. 1.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF A SUGAR BEET ABOUT FOUR MONTHS OLD AFFECTED WITH CURLY-TOP.

(About four-fifths natural size.)



FIG. 2.—A SUGAR BEET PLANT THAT HAS APPARENTLY RECOVERED FROM AN ATTACK OF CURLY-TOP.

(About two-sevenths natural size.)

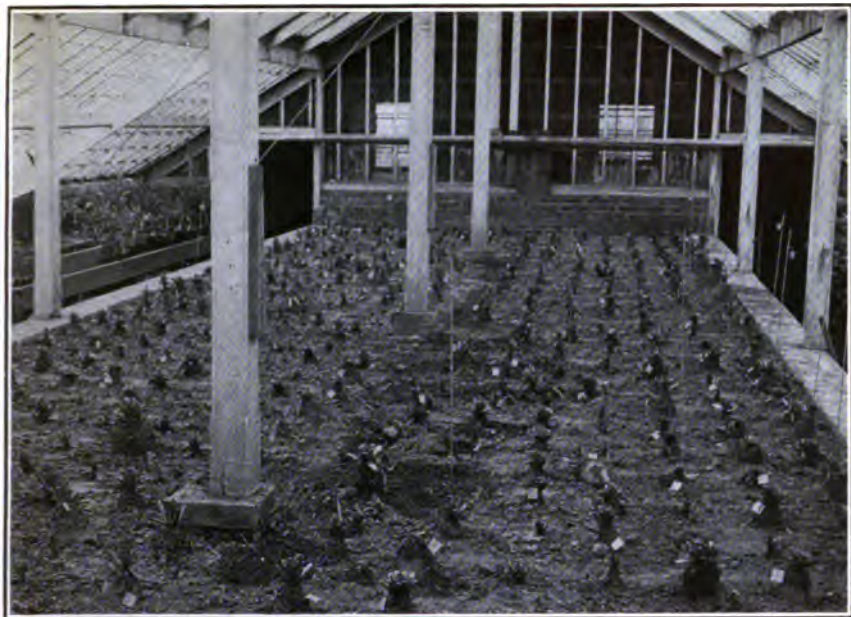


FIG. 1.—BEETS IN GREENHOUSE DEFOLIATED ARTIFICIALLY.



FIG. 2.—THE SAME BEETS SHOWN IN FIGURE 1 WITH NEW TOPS FOUR WEEKS AFTER DEFOLIATION.



FIG. 1.—GARDEN BEETS FOUR MONTHS OLD SHOWING SYMPTOMS OF CURLY-TOP.



FIG. 2.—GARDEN BEETS FOUR MONTHS OLD FREE FROM CURLY-TOP.



FIG. 1.—SUGAR BEET FIELD IN WHICH NEARLY ALL THE PLANTS IN THE FOREGROUND HAVE BEEN DESTROYED BY CURLY-TOP.



FIG. 2.—FIELD OF SUGAR BEETS SERIOUSLY AFFECTED WITH CURLY-TOP, SHOWING HERE AND THERE AN APPARENTLY HEALTHY BEET.



FIG. 1.—THE FOURTEENTH CONSECUTIVE CROP OF SUGAR BEETS IN A FIELD ENTIRELY FREE FROM CURLY-TOP.



FIG. 2.—SUGAR BEET PLANTS THREE MONTHS OLD IN POTS, SHOWING THE EFFECT OF VARIOUS METHODS OF WATERING.

(About one-eighth natural size.)

FIG. 1.—STEM OF SEED BEET AFFECTED WITH CURLY-TOP.



FIG. 2.—STEM OF HEALTHY SEED BEET.



INDEX.

	Page.
Acid, excessive, in soil, probable relation to curly-top.....	24-25
Aeration of soil, relation to curly-top	26
Alkali, excessive, in soil, effect on plants	23-24
land, occurrence of curly-top	9
Amarillo, Tex., experimental farm, note on curly-top.....	27
Arthur, Dr. J. C., study and naming of curly-top	10
Atmosphere, abnormal conditions, effect on plants	27-28
cold, at time of germination, effect on plants	27
Bacteria, disease, name for curly-top.....	10
possible cause of curly-top, experiments	14
presence in beets affected with curly-top	10-11
Bacteriosis, variant name for curly-top	10, 12
Ball, Dr. E. D., opinion on cause of curly-top	17
Beet farm, experimental, Utah, occurrence of curly-top	9
sugar, belt, occurrence of curly-top.....	9
Beets. <i>See</i> Curly-top, Leaves, Roots, etc.	
Blight, eastern, beet disease.....	8
true, cause.....	13, 14
variant name for curly-top	10, 12
western, variant name for curly-top	10
Breeding beets resistant to curly-top.....	30-31
"California beet disease," variant name for curly-top.....	10
Causes, possible, of curly-top	13-30
Cercospora beticola, cause of leaf-spot disease.....	8
true blight	13, 14
Chlorid, mercuric, use in combating curly-top.....	16
Cold, relation to curly-top.....	20
Contagion, curly-top, study.....	31
Copper sulphate solution, use on diseased plants.....	16-17
Crown, cavity, possible symptom of curly-top.....	8
Cultivation of plants, improper, relation to curly-top	25-26
Curly-top, choice of name, reasons.....	13
communicability, experiments.....	31
development of resistant strain of beets.....	30-31
history.....	8-10
investigations, experiments at Department greenhouses.....	15-16
in Indiana.....	10-11
results, summary.....	32
names of the disease.....	10-13
nonconsecutive appearance.....	30
occurrence.....	8-10
outbreak, 1900.....	9

	page.
Curly-top, percentage of young plants attacked.....	10
persistence.....	31-62
possible causes.....	13-30
symptoms.....	7-8
unequal distribution over infested area.....	9-10
Damping-off, relation to curly-top.....	19
Defoliation of plants, experiments in curly-top investigations.....	15
Disease resistance of beets, development by breeding.....	30-31
Drought, relation to curly-top symptoms.....	18
Fertility of soil, relation to curly-top.....	22
Fungi, possible cause of curly-top, experiments.....	14-17
Fungicides, experiments with diseased plants.....	16-17
Fungus from diseased fields, inoculation, experiments.....	15-16
Garland, Utah, experimental field, note on curly-top.....	9
Germination, relation to curly-top.....	27
Golden, Katherine E., investigations of curly-top in Indiana.....	10-11
Greenhouse experiments, conclusion as to cause of curly-top.....	19
normal conditions, effect on diseased plants.....	17
Gummosis, bacterial, variant name for curly-top.....	12
Hairy-root, variant name for curly-top.....	10, 13
Hedgcock, Dr. George G., early observation of curly-top.....	8
Humus, insufficient, in soil, effect on plants.....	22-23
Huston, Professor, discovery of curly-top in Indiana.....	10
Indiana, investigations of curly-top.....	10-11
Irrigated lands, occurrence of curly-top.....	9
Insects, relation to curly-top.....	17
Lapham and Heileman, observations of soil in relation to curly-top.....	24
Leaf conditions not responsible for curly-top.....	14-15
development in plants affected with curly-top.....	17
hopper, beet.....	17
spot, beet disease.....	8
Leaves, attacks by fungi possible cause of curly-top.....	14-15
diseased plants, appearance.....	7
Lime, deficiency as cause of curly-top.....	24
Mercuric chlorid solution, use on diseased plants.....	16-17
Moisture supply, abnormal, effect on plants.....	18-20
variable, effect on plants.....	19-20
Names of curly-top.....	10-13
Nomenclature of curly-top.....	10-13
Parasites, experiments to determine relation to curly-top.....	29
Persistence of curly-top.....	31-32
Plant food, insufficient, in soil, relation to curly-top.....	21-22
Plates, description.....	34
Rainfall after drought, relation to disease, opinion of Doctor Wilhelmj.....	29-30
Resistance of beets to curly-top, development by breeding.....	30-31
Roots, diseased plants, appearance.....	7
fungous attacks as cause of curly-top.....	15
insufficient supply of air, relation to curly-top.....	26
Seed bed, cold, effect on plants.....	20-21
dry, effect on plants.....	18
preparation, improper, relation to curly-top.....	25
warm, effect on plants.....	21
wet, effect on plants.....	19
poor, relation to curly-top.....	28-29

	Page
Soil, acidity, effect on plants	24-25
alkalinity, effect on plants	23-24
conditions, abnormal, effect on plants	20-26
diseased field, experiments with healthy plants	15-16
insufficient humus, effect on plants	22-23
plant food, effect on plants	21-22
"Stunted beets," variant name of curly-top	10, 13
Subsoil, hard, effect on plants	21
Sulphate, copper, use in combating curly-top	16
Summary of bulletin	32
Symptoms of curly-top and other diseases	7-8, 11
Taproot, insufficient moisture, effect on plants	18-19
Temperature, air, relation to cause of curly-top	27
soil, relation to curly-top	20-21
Varieties of beets attacked by curly-top	9
Water, cold, effect on plants	20
logging, relation to curly-top	19
"Whiskered beets," variant name for curly-top	10, 13
White fly, cause of curly-top, opinion of Doctor Ball	17
Wilhelmj, Dr. A., opinion as to cause of curly-top	19, 29-30
Wilting of leaves, symptom of curly-top	8
Windbreaks, use as protection from curly-top	27
Winds, hot, dry, effect on plants	27-28
Young plants, susceptibility to curly-top	9

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY—BULLETIN NO. 123.

B. T. GALLOWAY, *Chief of Bureau.*

THE DECAY OF ORANGES WHILE IN TRANSIT FROM CALIFORNIA.

BY

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY,
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF,
Washington, D. C., November 22, 1907.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith a manuscript entitled "The Decay of Oranges While in Transit from California" and to recommend that it be published as Bulletin No. 123 of the Bureau series. It has been prepared by Mr. G. Harold Powell, Pomologist in Charge of Fruit Transportation and Storage Investigations, assisted by Messrs. A. V. Stubenrauch, L. S. Tenny, H. J. Eustace, G. W. Hosford, and H. M. White, all of Field Investigations in Pomology, and has been submitted by Mr. William A. Taylor, Pomologist in Charge of Field Investigations, with a view to publication.

The investigations summarized in this manuscript are unique in that they have involved the actual handling and careful inspection of large quantities of oranges through all the various operations to which the fruit is subjected in its progress from the trees in California to the markets in eastern cities. This has included the actual custody of numerous carload lots of fruit while in transit under different methods of railroad transportation. The investigations, in general, have been conducted on a commercial scale and under commercial conditions, with a view to securing accurate data regarding the practical requirements and needs of different phases of the industry, but the laboratory method has been applied to the fullest extent practicable under the conditions existing in the field, the packing house, the storage warehouse, the railroad car, and the salesroom.

The perishable character of the product under investigation, taken in connection with the physiological and economic factors involved in its harvesting, transportation, and sale, has apparently been responsible for much of the misapprehension that has hitherto existed regarding the causes of decay of California oranges in commerce. A satisfactory determination of those conditions has required continuous observation of large numbers of representative lots of fruits simultaneously at distant points. No individual producer or receiver has

found it practicable to make such an investigation. In fact, it developed early in the investigation that the problems could be promptly and economically solved only through the development of an organized corps of scientific workers who could prosecute different phases of the work simultaneously in the producing sections, in transit, and in some representative eastern market, maintaining continuous communication by mail and telegraph, so that the conditions to which the various shipments of fruit had been subjected could be thoroughly understood. Such a corps of workers has been gradually built up in this work, and the results set forth herein are believed to fully justify this feature of the Bureau organization.

The present paper is the first formal and comprehensive publication of the results of these investigations. It should be stated, however, that the various branches of the industry have been informed from time to time regarding the progress of the work. This has been accomplished through addresses delivered before meetings of growers and of various organizations of warehousemen, refrigerating engineers, and railroad men, as well as through the personal contact of a large number of packing-house foremen with the experimental work. Occasional circular letters summarizing the conclusions reached have been sent to the individuals and associations interested.

Largely as a result of the thorough organization of the industry and the active cooperative spirit shown by the leading men in it, a prompt and general modification of methods has resulted and is still in progress. While the work is not yet complete, it is believed that the phases reported upon should be given wider publicity in all our orange-producing districts because of the bearing they are likely to have upon the handling of this and other fruits in commerce.

The accompanying illustrations are necessary to a full understanding of the text.

Respectfully,

B. T. GALLOWAY,
Chief of Bureau.

HON. JAMES WILSON,
Secretary of Agriculture.

CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction.....	9
General description of the California citrus-fruit industry.....	9
The extent of the citrus-fruit industry.....	10
The location of the citrus-fruit industry.....	11
Cultural conditions in the citrus-fruit belt.....	11
Methods of handling and marketing the citrus-fruit crop.....	12
Picking citrus fruits.....	15
Packing citrus fruits.....	16
Shipping citrus fruits.....	18
The investigation of the causes of decay.....	20
The blue mold of citrus fruits.....	21
Mechanical injuries related to the handling of oranges.....	23
The extent of the mechanical injury of the orange.....	24
Growers and packers not aware of the extent of mechanical injury.....	25
The injury of the fruit an economic problem.....	27
A reduction in the cost of handling a perishable product not always justifiable.....	28
A weak point in the present method of handling the orange.....	29
Methods of insuring a uniform condition of the fruit.....	29
Experiments with different methods of handling oranges.....	30
The experiments with oranges stored in packing houses.....	30
The decay in oranges in different sections.....	32
The decay in oranges in different periods of the season.....	34
The curing of oranges before packing.....	36
The brushing of California oranges.....	37
The washing of California oranges.....	38
The necessity for washing the fruit should be avoided.....	39
Packing-house equipment and conditions.....	40
Features to be avoided in a packing house.....	40
The decay of oranges in transit.....	42
General description of the experiments.....	42
The shipments under ventilation.....	43
Methods used in preventing decay in oranges in a large commercial business.....	45
The shipments under ice.....	46
A practical illustration of careful handling methods.....	47
An illustration of better handling methods.....	48
The shipments of precooled fruit.....	49
A comparison of the decay found in connection with the different methods of shipment.....	51

	Page.
The object of cooling fruit before shipment.....	52
The refrigeration of citrus fruits in transit.....	52
The cooling of oranges before transportation.....	53
Historical data on the precooling of oranges.....	55
The keeping quality of oranges after arrival in market.....	57
The investigation of the temperature of oranges while in transit.....	61
Temperature records in ventilated cars.....	62
Temperature records in iced cars.....	65
Temperature records of fruit cooled before loading and iced regularly in transit.....	66
Temperature records of fruit cooled before loading and iced in Cali- fornia only.....	67
Summary of precooling records.....	69
Summary.....	69
Description of plates.....	74
Index.....	75

ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATES.

	Page.
PLATE I. Washington Navel oranges showing blue-mold decay----	Frontispiece.
II. Washington Navel orange trees. Fig. 1.—A tree sent to California by the Department of Agriculture in 1873. Fig. 2.—A tree three years after planting-----	74
III. California orange groves and a packing house. Fig. 1.—A typical view of bearing orange groves. Fig. 2.—Interior view of an orange packing house with an overhead sizing machine---	74
IV. Orange brushing machines. Fig. 1.—A common type of brushing machine, with a hopper. Fig. 2.—A belt-carrying device over a brushing machine-----	74
V. Orange packing-house machinery. Fig. 1.—An automatic weighing machine. Fig. 2.—A type of sizing machine-----	74
VI. An interior view of a desirable type of orange packing house----	74
VII. The washing of citrus fruits. Fig. 1.—A lemon washing machine in operation. Fig. 2.—Washed oranges on drying racks-----	74
VIII. Valencia oranges. Lower specimen affected with sooty mold fungus-----	74
IX. The cooling of oranges in cars before shipment. Fig. 1.—The experimental plant used in 1905. Fig. 2.—The experimental plant used in 1907-----	74

TEXT FIGURES.

FIG. 1. Types of shears or clippers used in picking citrus fruits. A, a sharp-pointed type; B, clippers with blunt points; C, sheath clippers -----	15
2. Grading belts used in assorting oranges-----	17
3. Boxes of oranges in a car, showing the standard method of loading-----	19
4. Diagram illustrating the average amount of mechanical injury in oranges in ten packing houses-----	24
5. Diagram illustrating the average amount of mechanical injury in oranges of ten growers who pooled their fruit-----	25
6. Diagram illustrating the average quantity of fruit cut by ten pickers in the same grove-----	26
7. Diagram illustrating the average quantity of injured oranges found in bins or packed boxes-----	27
8. Diagram illustrating the percentage of decay in oranges held in packing houses, 1907-----	32
9. Diagram illustrating the percentage of decay in oranges picked at different times during the harvesting season, 1906-----	35

FIG. 10. Diagram illustrating the percentage of decay in oranges handled with average care, shipped under ventilation, February, 1907...	44
11. Diagram illustrating the percentage of decay in oranges handled rather roughly, shipped under ice, February to April, 1907.....	46
12. Diagram illustrating the percentage of decay in oranges cooled before shipping, March to May, 1907.....	50
13. Boxes of oranges packed in accordance with the method used in loading a car with 549 boxes.....	55
14. Diagram illustrating the percentage of decay upon arrival in market and for two weeks thereafter of precooled oranges handled carefully, 1907.....	56
15. Diagram illustrating the percentage of decay upon arrival in market and for three weeks thereafter of oranges handled roughly, shipped under ice, 1907.....	57
16. Diagram showing the temperature record of a carload of oranges shipped under regulated ventilation, April, 1906.....	58
17. Diagram showing the temperature record of a carload of oranges shipped under regulated ventilation, April, 1907.....	59
18. Diagram showing the temperature record of a carload of oranges shipped under regular icing, May, 1906.....	60
19. Diagram showing the average temperature record of two carloads of oranges shipped under regular icing, May, 1907.....	61
20. Diagram showing the temperature change of the oranges in the top and bottom tiers of boxes in a car shipped under regular icing.....	62
21. Diagram showing the temperature record of a standard carload of 384 boxes of oranges, precooled and shipped under regular icing, March and April, 1907.....	63
22. Diagram showing the temperature record of a carload consisting of 549 boxes of oranges, precooled and shipped under regular icing, April, 1907.....	64
23. Diagram showing the temperature changes in the fruit in the bottom, middle, and top tiers in a carload of 549 boxes of oranges, precooled and shipped under initial icing only.....	65
24. Diagram showing the temperature record of a carload of oranges, precooled and shipped under initial icing only, May, 1906.....	66
25. Diagram showing the temperature record of a carload of oranges, precooled and shipped under initial icing only, May and June, 1907.....	67
26. Diagram showing the temperature record of a carload of oranges, precooled and shipped without icing under regulated ventilation, April, 1907.....	68

THE DECAY OF ORANGES WHILE IN TRANSIT FROM CALIFORNIA.

INTRODUCTION.

Soon after the United States Department of Agriculture, through the Bureau of Plant Industry, began a study of the storage and transportation of fruit the orange growers of southern California requested that an investigation be made of the decay in citrus fruits while in transit to eastern markets. The losses from decay were estimated variously to be from \$500,000 to \$1,500,000 annually.

The financial importance of this large amount of decay to the orange grower and shipper, to the buyer, and to the orange-consuming public made an investigation of the possible causes desirable.

A general survey of the industry was made in 1904, and for six months in each year since, experimental investigations have been carried on in an extensive way in the groves, in the packing houses, in the cars in transit to the East, and in the markets.

As this investigation has been so closely related to all the operations of the California citrus-fruit business, a general account of the industry will be necessary for a proper understanding of the discussion of the causes of decay in oranges during shipment.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE CALIFORNIA CITRUS-FRUIT INDUSTRY.

The introduction of the Washington Navel orange in 1870 from Bahia, Brazil, by the United States Department of Agriculture under the name of the "Bahia" orange and the sending of two trees propagated from those introduced from Brazil to Mrs. L. C. Tibbets, Riverside, Cal., in 1873, mark the most important epoch in the history of citrus-fruit culture in California. There were many types of oranges growing in southern California at that time, most of which were descended from trees planted in the gardens around the old missions by the Spanish fathers. None of these oranges equaled the new

Navel orange. This orange was a prolific bearer, the fruit of fine quality, the flesh meaty, juicy, and seedless, and the skin of a texture that insured good shipping quality, of a rich deep-orange color. The trees were of medium size, which made the groves more manageable than those of the tall-growing seedlings. This variety was named by the Californians the "Washington Navel," in honor of the city from which it was sent to them.^a (Pl. I.)

The Washington Navel was widely planted in southern California, the State acquired a world-wide reputation for its citrus fruits, and a new era in orange culture in America began. In 1906-7 the Washington Navel crop in California reached a value of \$12,500,000, with a gross value, including freight and icing charges, of \$20,000,000.

The two trees sent to California by the Department of Agriculture are objects of historic interest in the city of Riverside at the present time. One of the trees was transplanted by the city from the Tibbets place in 1903 and stands in a thrifty condition at the head of Magnolia avenue. The other tree, shown in Plate II, figure 1, was transplanted in May, 1903, with the assistance of President Roosevelt, to the court of the Mission Inn.

THE EXTENT OF THE CITRUS-FRUIT INDUSTRY.

The citrus-fruit industry of California has grown up gradually. It began to assume commercial importance by 1880, and in 1886 amounted to a thousand carloads of 300 boxes each. Between 1890 and 1895 it had grown to from 4,000 to 7,000 carloads annually, and from 1900 to 1907 to between 25,000 and 32,000 carloads annually, i. e., from 6,000,000 to 11,000,000 boxes, having a gross value of about \$1,000 a carload, or from \$25,000,000 to \$32,000,000.

The lemon comprises from 10 to 15 per cent of the citrus crop. There are a few pomelos (grape-fruit) grown. Three-fourths of the oranges are of the Washington Navel variety, the remainder comprising the Valencia as the most important variety, with fewer of the St. Michael, Mediterranean Sweet, Thompson, Ruby, Maltese Blood, Jaffa, seedlings, and tangerines. There are probably from 60,000 to 70,000 acres of citrus fruits in California, distributed among 5,000 to 6,000 growers. From 90 to 95 per cent of the citrus fruits are shipped to markets outside of California.

^a The Washington Navel orange was first called "Bahia" by the late William Saunders, Horticulturist of the United States Department of Agriculture. This name has been adopted by the American Pomological Society and appears in its catalogue of fruits. The name "Washington Navel" is in almost universal use, however, and although of later origin than "Bahia" it will be used in this publication.

THE LOCATION OF THE CITRUS-FRUIT INDUSTRY.

The citrus-fruit industry has reached its greatest development in southern California, which is made up largely of the San Bernardino, San Gabriel, and San Fernando valleys. It has become most prominent in the foothill regions and lower lands-extending down from the San Gabriel and San Bernardino mountains, which make up the Sierra Madre Range; in the Riverside district; at the base of the Temescal Range on the Corona bench, and in the Coast region in Orange and Los Angeles counties. There are smaller but not less favorable regions in Santa Barbara and Ventura counties, close to the mountains, and in San Diego County.

In recent years the industry has been developing north of the Tehachapi Range of the Sierra Madre Mountains, especially in Tulare, Kern, Fresno, and Butte counties, though oranges are grown to a limited extent in other fruit-growing counties in the central and northern parts of the State as well. The greatest development has occurred in Tulare County, where the annual production is now about 2,000 cars of oranges, mostly of the Washington Navel variety. New plantings have been made which under favorable conditions may increase the annual production in that section to 10,000 cars in the next few years.

The orange crop of northern California matures from four to six weeks earlier than it does in the southern part of the State, notwithstanding that it is from 200 to 500 miles farther north. This unusual condition is due to the topography of the Pacific coast. The large inland valleys of northern and central California lie between two great mountain ranges extending north and south. The Coast Range Mountains shut off the modifying influences of the sea, causing relatively higher night temperatures during the summer months than prevail in the southern part of the State.

CULTURAL CONDITIONS IN THE CITRUS-FRUIT BELT.

Citrus fruits are grown in California on many types of soil under an intensive system of orchard management. Irrigation is necessary except from December to April, when the rainfall usually occurs. As in other horticultural industries there has not yet been developed a uniform system of management in respect to the handling of the soil, the use of water, the application of fertilizers, or in the handling of the trees. In a general way, it may be said that the tillage is frequent and thorough during the season from March to August or September; that cover crops, especially winter vetch, Canada peas, and burr clover, are coming into general use as a winter covering and as a means of improving the condition of the soil; that pruning, except with the lemon, is not systematically practiced;

and that commercial fertilizers of various kinds are probably used more extensively than in any other orchard industry in the country, except in citrus-fruit growing in Florida.

The groves are variable in size, the smaller ones containing from 5 to 10 acres, the latter being a common unit of size. There are many of 15 to 20 acres or more, and the groves of some growers range from 100 to 200 or more acres. There are a few large companies and corporations engaged in the business, some of them having from 250 to 2,500 acres of citrus fruits.

A Washington Navel orange tree three years after planting is shown in Plate II, figure 2, and a typical view of orange groves in bearing is shown in Plate III, figure 1.

The harvesting of the Washington Navel crop begins in November in northern and central California, and extends to the middle of June or the first of July in southern California. The Valencia season opens the latter part of May and extends into the latter part of September or the first of October, the trees at that time bearing the crop to be harvested and the partly developed fruit for the crop of the following season. The other varieties of oranges are harvested from February to July. The lemon is picked from the same grove in practically every month of the year, although the largest part of the crop is harvested from November to May, a single tree generally containing fruit in all stages of development from the blossoms to the mature lemon.

METHODS OF HANDLING AND MARKETING THE CITRUS-FRUIT CROP.

The citrus-fruit growers of California are as a class men of high intelligence, and many of them are of large business experience and capacity. Cooperation in the handling of the citrus fruits is the corner stone on which many of the successful business practices rest. Among the various systems of marketing the fruit there have been developed some of the best examples of cooperative organization among fruit growers to be found in America.

These cooperative associations, organized primarily for the business of packing and distributing the fruit to market, handle from 70 to 75 per cent of the entire citrus-fruit crop.

There are also firms and individuals who pack, distribute, and sell fruit on commission for the growers. More or less of this fruit is sold f. o. b. cars in California, subject to inspection on arrival in market, or for cash f. o. b. cars in California, while some is consigned to distant merchants. There is also considerable buying of the fruit from the growers either by the pound or in lump in the orchard taken as a whole. There are a few growers and fruit-growing corporations who pack and market their own fruit. About 40 per cent of all citrus

fruits shipped from California is sold at public auction in eastern markets.

Among the cooperative organizations, the California Fruit Growers' Exchange packs and sells through its own district agents in the markets somewhat more than 50 per cent of the entire citrus crop. This organization is formed to regulate the distribution of citrus fruits throughout the country and to give to its members the benefits that arise from its cooperative efforts of various kinds. This Exchange represents about 4,000 growers, who are organized into more than 80 local incorporated associations, the primary function of which is to prepare the fruit for market. The associations in the different producing regions combine into one or more local incorporated district exchanges or selling agencies, which sell the fruit through the district agents or at public auction and receive the money therefor through the medium of the California Fruit Growers' Exchange. There are 13 of these district exchanges. Each local district exchange selects a representative to act for it on the board of directors of the California Fruit Growers' Exchange, which is an incorporated body acting as an agency or clearing house for the district exchanges in the marketing of their fruit and which operates for the growers without profit to itself. It takes the fruit of the district exchanges after it is packed, and with their cooperation and advice places it in the different markets of the country, sells it, collects the proceeds, and turns them over to the district exchanges, which in turn pay the growers through the local associations. The California Fruit Growers' Exchange is the agency through which the grower is able to control the larger business problems and the general policy of the handling and marketing of the citrus-fruit crop.

An association, whether a part of the California Fruit Growers' Exchange or organized independently, is composed of a number of growers who are incorporated with a board of directors and officers for business management. The association usually owns its own packing house, where the fruit of the members is assembled and prepared for shipment, or the association may lease a packing house from a railroad. The fruit of an association is marketed in the name of the association or of the district exchange of which the local association is a part, in the latter case both the name of the local association and the district exchange usually appearing on the package.

The fruit of the growers of an association may be handled as an individual account, but the usual method is to ship the different grades of fruit of all the growers under brands selected for each grade, the individual grower losing his identity so far as the market is concerned when the fruit enters the packing house and has been graded. In handling the fruit in this manner, the shipping season

is divided into periods varying from two to six weeks in length, and these periods are known as "pools." When a pool covers a month, it is referred to as a "January pool," "February pool," and so on. The members of the association are credited with the weight of each grade of fruit delivered, and at the end of a pool receive the pro rata of the proceeds represented by the quantity of fruit delivered to the packing house during that pool.

The responsibility of the association or of the individual or firm that packs and distributes or sells the fruit for a grower usually begins when the fruit is delivered at the packing house. The association in a general way controls the time of delivery of the fruit of its members to the packing houses and the proportion of their crop that shall be delivered at one time, giving each member an opportunity to furnish his pro rata of fruit during the marketing season, based on the relative percentage of his crop to the holdings of the association as a whole. Previous to the beginning of the investigation by the Bureau of Plant Industry little attempt was made to exercise control over the conditions under which the fruit was harvested and delivered for packing, but during recent seasons much careful attention has been given to these important operations.

In most cases the fruit is picked by the owner or manager of a grove, or by labor under his direction, the labor being paid by the box or by the day. Frequently the fruit is picked and carted to the packing house by contract at a fixed price per box or rate per hundred pounds. Among the cooperative associations and individuals or firms shipping for growers or buying for cash, a system of gang picking is growing in favor as a means of insuring greater uniformity in the condition of the fruit. A picking crew with a foreman is employed by the officers of an association, for example, and the fruit of the members of the association is picked by this crew. Under this system only skillful workmen need be employed and very efficient work is secured when the labor is directed by a competent foreman. Some association packing houses that do not have a picking gang employ a picking inspector, who sees that the fruit delivered by different growers to the packing house has been carefully picked.

The most uniform results are secured when the same labor is employed continuously. Since two or three pickings of oranges are made from the same tree during a season, this condition is not always practicable on the average ranch when the picking is done by the owner. Usually the owner has to secure such labor as is available for each picking, and often can not employ the same set of men more than once. This is especially true where the help is secured through labor agencies. Under these conditions there has been a lack of uniformity in the condition of the fruit from different groves and from the same grove at different pickings.

Among the laborers are found Americans, Japanese, Mexicans, Chinese, and a few of other nationalities. Experience has shown that the ability of the labor foreman is of more importance than the nationality of the crew in securing efficient work and that the general policy of those who employ the labor in respect to the care with which the fruit is to be handled is of greater importance than both.

PICKING CITRUS FRUITS.

In picking citrus fruits it is necessary to sever them from the branches with sharp clippers or shears. The fruit is then placed in a picking bag holding from 20 to 50 pounds, slung over the neck and shoulders of the picker. From this it is emptied into picking or lug boxes, and in these the oranges are delivered to the packing house. Sometimes the packing or shipping boxes are used for this purpose once before shipment. Formerly the most common type of shears in use was a small one with sharp-pointed, curved blades, shown in figure 1, A, which, when

not handled with care, often punctured or cut the skin of the orange. Since greater care and attention have been given to the operation of picking, many new styles of clippers have been invented and put into use, most of them with rounded or blunt points. Blunt-pointed clippers are shown in figure 1, B, and another style, known as sheath clippers, in figure 1, C.

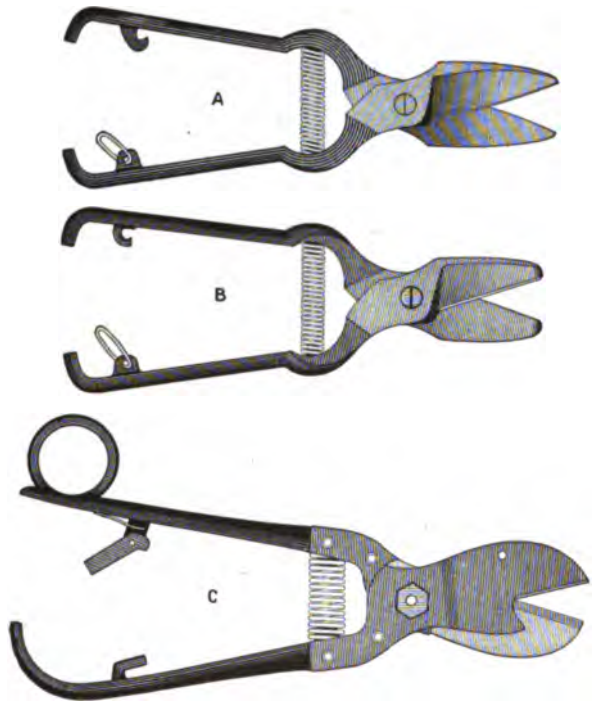


FIG. 1.—Types of shears or clippers used in picking citrus fruits. A, a sharp-pointed type; B, clippers with blunt points; C, sheath clippers.

PACKING CITRUS FRUITS.

The packing houses are located either on the ranches or at the shipping stations, usually at the latter points. Some of the large corporations and a few individuals have the fruit packed in houses on the ranch, but the association houses and those of the other types of shippers are generally placed alongside the railroad at the shipping point.

The houses vary in capacity from 1 to 15 carloads of fruit a day. The capacity of all the packing houses in California is said to aggregate from 400 to 600 cars a day, though the daily shipments do not average more than 150 cars during the main shipping season. In no other fruit industry have the appliances for handling the fruit in the packing house been so highly developed. The average orange packing house is equipped with box-making machines which nail together the boxes used for carrying the fruit to market; specially constructed hand trucks for moving several picking or shipping boxes at a time; hoppers for receiving the fruit; washing tanks and scrubbing machines to remove the sooty-mold fungus, and drying racks in those sections where the fruit has to be washed; elevators to carry the fruit to the grading and sizing machines, drying racks, and other places; carrying belts or chutes; automatic weighing and recording scales for weighing the different grades of fruit of each grower; series of padded bins, sometimes with self-adjusting bottoms, for receiving the different sizes of fruit; belts to carry the packed boxes; presses for covering the boxes; and sometimes a system of fans to assist in drying the fruit, and a machine to wrap the fruit automatically. All of the stationary machinery is run by power, making the interior of a large packing house in operation resemble the interior of a complex factory.

There is a wide variation in the type and arrangement of the different kinds of machinery. A general idea of the steps through which the orange passes may be gained from the following brief description of a common type of house. The fruit is dumped from the field boxes into the hopper (see Pl. IV, figs. 1 and 2), which leads to rapidly revolving brushes (Pl. IV, fig. 1) which clean the fruit. From the brush the fruit is elevated to a sorting or grading table or grading belts, figure 2, where it passes before the grader and is sorted into two or more grades by hand. Each grade then runs by gravity or on belts through an automatic weighing machine (Pl. V, fig. 1), where the weight of the grades of each grower is recorded, to the long sizing machine (Pl. V, fig. 2), and from there, in various ways, to the packing bins seen in Plate VI. If the fruit is to be washed, it is first dumped into a tank of water; then run between brushes submerged in the water (Pl. VII, fig. 1) or with water run-

ning over them; then elevated or run to drying racks (Pl. VII, fig. 2) or under a blast of air, after which it is usually run through all the steps described for brushed fruit, or the hopper and brush may be left out and the oranges delivered to the sorting table. There is a wide difference in the simplicity or complexity of arrangement of the packing houses and a similar variation in the speed with which the machinery is operated. A complex, undesirable type of house is shown in Plate III, figure 2, while a simpler and desirable arrangement of the machinery is shown in Plate VI.

The packing of the fruit is done by men or women, the laborer being paid usually by the box, though sometimes by the day. The packers average from 40 to 100 boxes for a day of ten hours.



FIG. 2.—Grading belts used in assorting oranges.

The grading of citrus fruits is based on the general texture of the skin of the fruit, on its appearance as influenced by scars, and on the general form and style of the fruit. The grades have no reference to the size of the fruit. There are usually three grades packed—"Fancy," "Choice," and "Standard." Some packers also have so-called "Extra fancy" and "Extra choice" grades. A "Fancy" orange is supposed to have a deep orange color, to be normal in form, fine in texture, with freedom from blemishes, and heavy and juicy. A "Choice" orange is supposed to have good color and good but not the finest texture. It may have a few blemishes. It should be free from frost damage and should be reasonably heavy and juicy. A "Standard" orange may be quite badly scarred or

discolored, coarse in texture, and irregular in form, but should be merchantable shipping stock. Many frozen oranges are shipped as "Standards." A fourth grade, "Culls," is sold to the peddlers from the packing houses and is sometimes shipped to near-by markets. Many of the shippers are discarding the "Fancy" and "Choice" grades and pack a grade called "Orchard run," which represents the fruit of the orchard with the "Standards" and "Culls" out. The grades are usually shipped under brands which are selected for the different grades and not under the designation "Fancy," "Choice," or "Standard." The name "Orchard run" is frequently used as a brand designation for that grade.

Each grade of oranges is divided into sizes, the extreme range of sizes varying from 48 to 420 oranges to the box. The most desirable commercial sizes of the Washington Navel variety are in boxes containing 150, 176, 200, and 216 oranges. A standard box of California oranges is 12 by 12 by 26 inches outside measurement, divided in the middle by a partition, with an inside fruit space of $11\frac{1}{2}$ by $11\frac{1}{2}$ by 24 inches. A box of oranges is estimated to weigh 72 pounds.

A car of Washington Navel oranges, so far as the sizes are concerned, may contain boxes of all of the sizes. A car is called a "standard car" when it contains not more than 10 per cent of each of the following sizes—96, 112, and 250, and not over 20 per cent of the 126 size. The remainder of the car may be divided among the 150, 176, 200, and 216 sizes. If a car is sold to a dealer at a fixed price per box, it is usual to allow a discount of 25 to 50 cents per box on the excess in the 96, 112, 126, and 250 sizes, and a discount of 50 cents per box on the 48, 64, 80, 288, 300, 324, 360, and 420 sizes. The rule regarding the sizes in a standard car may vary with the season, with the section, and with the general size of the fruit taken as a whole. When oranges of either the large or small sizes are scarce they are at a premium, and the proportion in a car may be raised without discount.

SHIPPING CITRUS FRUITS.

The citrus fruits of California are distributed to markets throughout the United States and Canada, and to a limited extent to European and other countries. They are shipped under a specially organized refrigerator-car service. From November to the middle of March, during which period about one-half the crop is moved, the weather in California and throughout the territory en route to distributing points is cool and shipments are made under ventilation without ice, the ventilation of the cars being regulated by the railroad under instructions from the shipper. After the middle of March cool weather in California or in transit can not be relied upon and ice is quite generally used for refrigeration, though some ship-

pers forward the fruit much later under ventilation. Early in the season, especially during January and February, when the fruit is packed in a cool condition, it may be frozen in transit unless special precautions are taken to protect it by insulating the car with building paper or other materials, by raising the boxes on strips above the floor, and by regulating the ventilators carefully according to instructions. Occasionally after the middle of March the fruit may be loaded at a temperature of 80° to 100° F., but a large proportion of it is packed at a temperature not above 65° F. even as late as the first of June.



FIG. 3.—Boxes of oranges in a car, showing the standard method of loading.

A standard car 40 feet in length usually contains 384 boxes of oranges loaded two tiers on end and six rows wide, as shown in figure 3. The boxes are billed at an estimated weight of 72 pounds each. The minimum freight weight of a car over 37 feet in length, outside measurement, is 26,700 pounds. The minimum freight weight of a car 37 feet or less in length is 24,190 pounds. The freight rate varies from \$1.12½ to \$1.50 per hundred pounds when shipped in carload lots. To most points on the Missouri River and eastward there is an emergency rate of \$1.15 per hundred pounds in carload lots, effective since March 11, 1907, the former rate being \$1.25 per hundred pounds.

In 1907, when there was serious shortage in the supply of cars, many were loaded seven rows wide on the bottom tier and six wide on the top tier as a temporary expedient, thereby increasing the customary load an appreciable amount.

Each of the two ice bunkers of a refrigerator car, one at either end, holds from 2 to 2½ tons of ice. The first icing of the cars is done at various assembling points in California after the fruit is loaded, and reicing in transit follows as needed. The average time in transit from southern California points to New York is twelve to fifteen days, and to Chicago from nine to eleven days, the time, in general, depending on the condition of the transportation business of the western railroads and their connections. The carload rate on refrigeration is based on the section of the country into which the car is shipped and the weight of fruit in a car. The rate to Chicago, for example, on a car of 24,190 pounds is \$54.67 and to New York \$65.61. The rate on a car of 27,650 pounds, which is the weight of a standard car of 384 boxes, is \$62.50 in the former case and \$75 in the latter.

THE INVESTIGATION OF THE CAUSES OF DECAY.

The investigation by the Bureau of Plant Industry was begun as the result of the efforts of Mr. J. H. Reed, an orange grower of Riverside, Cal., who, on account of the interstate nature of the problem, endeavored to induce the Department of Agriculture to undertake this work. In the winter of 1903-4 a preliminary survey of the orange industry was undertaken to make plans for this investigation. The causes of the decay were not understood, but a multitude of theories were advanced by growers and shippers to explain it. Some attributed the decay to the influence of the type of soil and to other conditions under which the fruit was grown; to a possible degeneracy in the fruit as the trees grew older, and to climatic conditions, such as frequent fogs and rains. The decay was thought by many to be especially related to a supposed inherent weakness of the fruit during the blooming period of the trees, which occurs during the picking season. Others believed it to be due to methods practiced in the packing houses, while nearly all were more or less agreed that a large part of the loss was chargeable to inadequate or improperly handled transportation facilities. The decay entailed a heavy loss on the shipper, it was detrimental to the reputation of the industry, and it led to difficulties of various kinds between all parties concerned in the handling and transportation of citrus fruits.

The preliminary survey in the winter of 1903-4 showed that the decay was more troublesome in some regions than in others, that it was worse in some packing houses than in others in the same region,

and that it usually increased in severity as the season advanced. Continual observations on many of the popular and supposed causes did not give promise of a satisfactory explanation, but it was noticed from the beginning that there was a close and constant relation between the various methods of handling the fruit and the development of decay.

THE BLUE MOLD OF CITRUS FRUITS.

The common blue-mold fungus was always found to be associated with decaying oranges, as was observed in 1905 by Woodworth.^a This fungus grew within the tissues of the fruit and caused a breaking down of the structure, which rapidly produced a soft decay of the entire fruit. Two distinct kinds of growth were constantly found. The most common grew rapidly in a rather indefinite area over the orange, producing a mass of olive-green spores, with a large area of white mold extending beyond the spores and producing a semisoft condition of the fruit. The growth of the second was much slower and in a more definite area, and the spores were bright blue in color, though in other respects this fungus was similar to the first.

Both fungi have been determined as species of *Penicillium*. While a distinct difference can be seen in the growth of the two in producing decay in the orange, it has been difficult to separate them morphologically. *Penicillium glaucum* has been generally considered the most common of the mold fungi. Yet, on the orange the rapid-growing, olive-green fungus is referred to as *Penicillium digitatum*, and the slow-growing, bright-blue species as *P. glaucum*.^b The more common form is shown in Plate I, frontispiece. The spores are produced in countless numbers on the decaying fruit, of which there is always more or less in the groves and in and around the packing houses. They are on the fruit, on all the machinery, and floating in the atmosphere, and they germinate easily and quickly wherever the conditions of heat and moisture are favorable.

That there might be no question about these molds being the cause of the decay, large numbers of fresh, sound oranges were inoculated both in the field and the laboratory with spores of these species, and without exception the characteristic decay resulted.

These fungi had always been considered as saprophytic—i. e., capable of growing only upon dead organic matter—and from previous investigations with apples in storage it had been determined that

^a Woodworth, C. W. Orange and Lemon Rot, Cal. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 139.

^b Smith, Ralph E. The "Soft Spot" of Oranges, Botanical Gazette, vol. 24, p. 103.

Smith, Ralph E., et al. The Brown Rot of the Lemon, Cal. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 190.

fungi of this group were apparently incapable of penetrating the unbroken epidermis of a healthy fruit and causing decay.

Upon careful examination of a large number of oranges in which the rot was just starting, it was seen that the area of decay in most cases was around a place where the epidermis had been previously injured by a cut or abrasion of some kind. Not all fruits in which the epidermis had been injured showed decay, nor could the decay always be traced to an abrasion in the skin. Injured fruit that was exposed to a free circulation of air did not usually develop a large amount of decay. The moving air quickly evaporated the moisture which accumulated in the injured tissue, making conditions unfavorable for the germination of the mold spores and the subsequent development of decay.

The effect of different kinds of cuts and abrasions on the fruit appeared important. A slight puncture or the removal of bits of the epidermis by scratches or by shaving it with the picking shears would frequently dry before spores could germinate and become established. A deeper wound, especially in the body of the fruit, where the skin is thin, would usually fill with juice and provide ideal conditions for rapid decay. It was noticed that decay did not develop in these slight wounds, while it was almost sure to develop in the deeper wounds unless the fruits were held in an unusually dry or cold atmosphere.

These observations were followed by a series of laboratory studies by Mrs. Flora W. Patterson, Mycologist of the Bureau of Plant Industry, who found that the blue-mold fungus did not have the power of penetrating the epidermis of a sound, healthy orange even under conditions of heat and moisture that were most favorable for the growth of the fungus. Practical applications of these laboratory tests were made with oranges under ordinary packing-house conditions. Without puncturing the skin, the mold spores were placed on the surface of oranges which had been delivered at the packing house in the usual commercial way and were apparently sound. This fruit was held for one or two weeks in the house, where conditions were favorable for the germination of the spores and for the development of decay, and then examined. It was rare to find that decay had developed at the point where the blue mold had been placed on the fruit. Decay, however, sometimes developed where no mechanical injuries were visible. In these cases, the mold probably entered the skin through injuries caused by the punctures of insects, by the dropping of the fruit, or through other injuries not discernible.

The power of the fungus to grow in healthy oranges in commercial cold storage has been tested by inoculating fresh fruits with the

mold spores in a puncture through the epidermis and placing them at once in a temperature of 32° F. or less. Decay had not developed in two months, when the tests ended. When the decay is established and developing in an orange, it does not appear to be entirely checked when placed in a temperature of 32° F., though the development is greatly retarded.

MECHANICAL INJURIES RELATED TO THE HANDLING OF ORANGES.

In the spring of 1905 a systematic series of observations and inspections was inaugurated to determine the amount and severity of mechanical injuries of oranges when delivered at the packing houses and the relation of the methods of handling the fruit to these injuries.

This was accomplished by a close inspection of many thousand fruits in a large number of packing houses and groves in different sections, and included an examination of the oranges of different growers delivering fruit at the same house and of the work of different pickers working in the same grove.

It was soon discovered that fresh mechanical injuries could be seen on a considerable proportion of the fruit. The most common type of injury was made by the point of the clippers in cutting the oranges from the trees. In some cases deep gashes had been cut into the skin, in others the skin had been shaved or sliced off in areas varying in extent, while in still others the injury was so slight as to be hardly perceptible. Many of the oranges were severely injured by stem punctures, which are produced when an orange cut from the tree with a long stem is allowed to fall or roll forcibly against another fruit, while others showed scratches of various kinds and punctures from thorns. Other common forms of injury occurring in the groves were punctures and bruises from gravel and twigs in the bottom of the picking boxes and cuts in the skin caused by the finger nails of the pickers. Frequently bruises were found that could be traced to rough and careless work in loading and carting the fruit from the groves to the packing house and in unloading. It was found that there was often a wide difference in the amount of this injury in the fruit delivered by different growers to the same packing house, and there was as great a variation in the condition of the fruit in different picking boxes coming from the same grove. Very often there was considerable injury that could be traced to some incidental derangement in the packing-house machinery, such as a broken wire in a wash tank, a protruding screw among the bristles in the brushing machines, a nail or bolt extending into a chute or runway, or some other similar defect. (See Plate I.)

A large number of records of these different types of injuries has been secured during the past three years. It is not possible to include these records in full in this publication, but the following representative statistics will give an idea of the extent of this trouble.

THE EXTENT OF THE MECHANICAL INJURY OF THE ORANGE.

In 1905 the average amount of mechanically injured fruit, based upon a careful inspection of more than 40,000 oranges during January and February, was 17 per cent. On February 27, 1905, a circular was issued calling attention to this injury and its relation to decay and suggesting methods whereby it could be reduced. Apparently the growers were quick to adopt ways of reducing the injury,

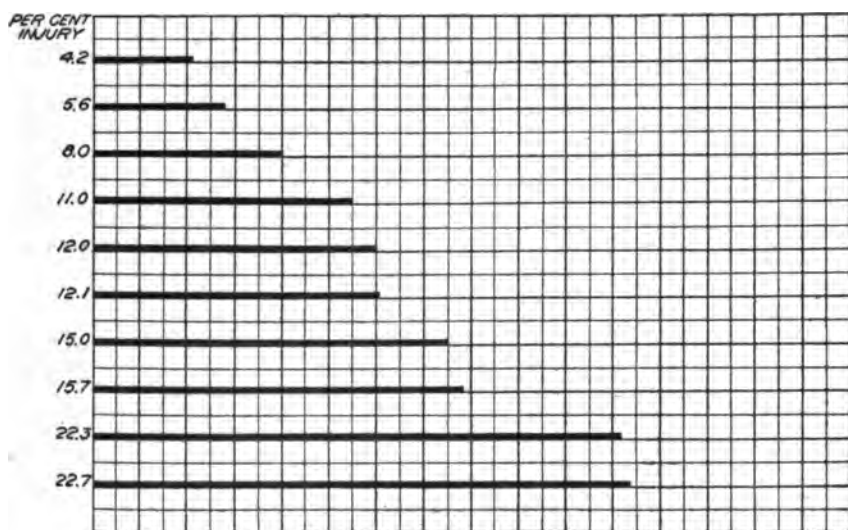


FIG. 4.—Diagram illustrating the average amount of mechanical injury in oranges in ten packing houses.

for after the 1st of March it did not exceed 7.5 per cent—an immediate reduction of nearly 10 per cent.

The accompanying chart (fig. 4), computed from the data of 1905, shows the variation in the amount of injury in the fruit found in ten different packing houses.

The chart shown as figure 5, page 25, also computed from the records of 1905, shows the variation in the amount of injury in the oranges of ten different growers who delivered and pooled their fruit together in the same packing house.

The fruit of an individual has sometimes shown 50 per cent or more of mechanically injured oranges.

The variation in the quantity of fruit injured by ten different pickers in the same grove is brought out in figure 6 (p. 26), computed from the records of 1905.

Occasionally pickers have been found who have injured from 50 to 75 per cent of the fruit they picked.

A large quantity of fruit has been examined in the bins and packed boxes in many packing houses to determine whether the oranges that are injured are seen and removed by the graders, as it was generally maintained that this was done. Figure 7 (p. 27) shows the percentage of injured fruit in ten representative lots.

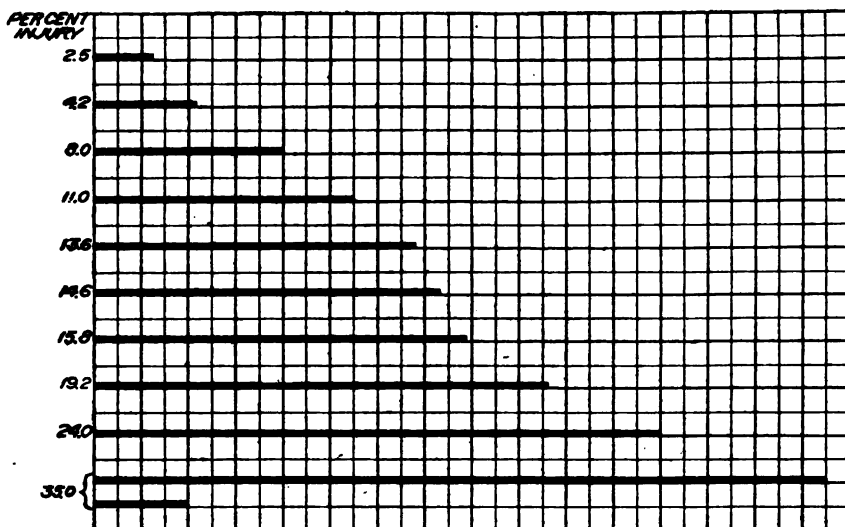


FIG. 5.—Diagram illustrating the average amount of mechanical injury in oranges of ten growers who pooled their fruit.

It was an exception to find a grader who could see and throw out an orange showing a slight mechanical injury. It is probable that 95 per cent of the fruit injured in handling is included in the packed fruit.

GROWERS AND PACKERS NOT AWARE OF THE EXTENT OF MECHANICAL INJURY.

The most experienced growers and packers were not aware of the extent to which the orange was injured in handling, nor did they appreciate the effect of a slight bruise or abrasion on the keeping quality of the fruit. In a general way, it was known that an orange with a punctured skin was likely to decay, and the need of handling the fruit carefully was discussed abstractly but with little appreciation of the importance of careful handling to the preservation of an

orange. The greatest amount of injury was frequently found in the fruit of individuals who were skillful growers and who gave careful attention to all the necessary details of production, but who did not know or understand the importance of careful picking. The same failure to appreciate the importance of care in handling was even more pronounced in the case of the laborers who did the picking. They did not know they would cause the decay of the fruit by cutting the skin or allowing it to drop into the picking sack, or that they were actually causing so much injury to the fruit.

Since it was desirable to have all the persons interested realize the large quantity of fruit that was injured by handling, the inspections of the oranges in the groves and packing houses have been

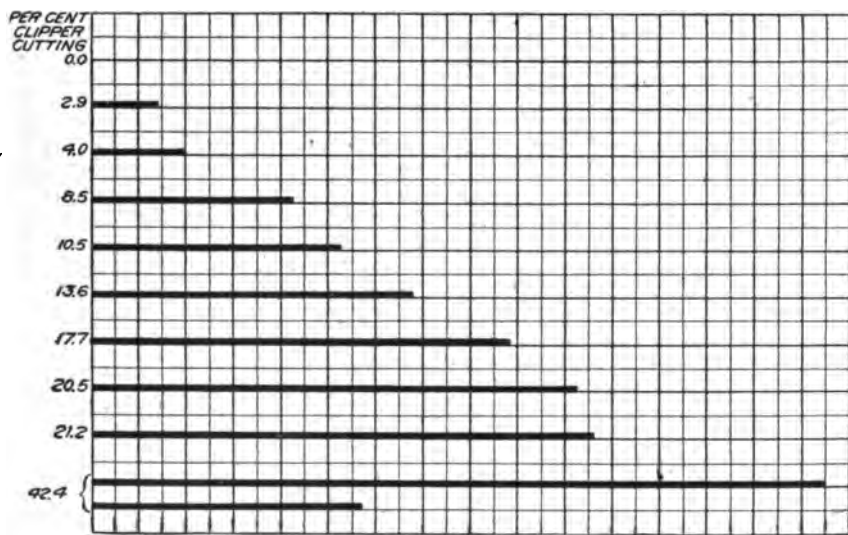


FIG. 6.—Diagram illustrating the average quantity of fruit cut by ten pickers in the same grove.

made in full view and with the cooperation of the most interested growers and packers. The relation between an injury to an orange and the chance of decay during shipment is now generally understood by growers and packers, largely as a result of these demonstrations.

As a result of this understanding, it is now accepted without question that the elimination or reduction of the mechanical injury of the orange in handling is one of the largest problems that the California citrus-fruit grower and packer have to overcome. A determined effort is being made to reduce the trouble, and abundant data have been accumulated to show that by using care in the instruction and supervision of labor not more than 2 or 3 per cent of the

oranges will be injured in handling the fruit on a large commercial scale.

The following data are presented to show that it is practicable to handle the orange without mechanical injury to the fruit. These figures show the result of 10 inspections of fruit from 1905 to 1907, inclusive, of a corporation handling several hundred acres of groves. The first inspection was made before the circular of February 27, 1905, was issued.

Percentage of mechanical injury to fruit found in a large orange grove at each of ten inspections during 1905-1907.

First inspection.	Second inspection.	Third inspection.	Fourth inspection.	Fifth inspection.	Sixth inspection.	Seventh inspection.	Eighth inspection.	Ninth inspection.	Tenth inspection.
15.8	2.6	0.4	1.1	1.2	3.3	5.5	0.3	3.0	0.0

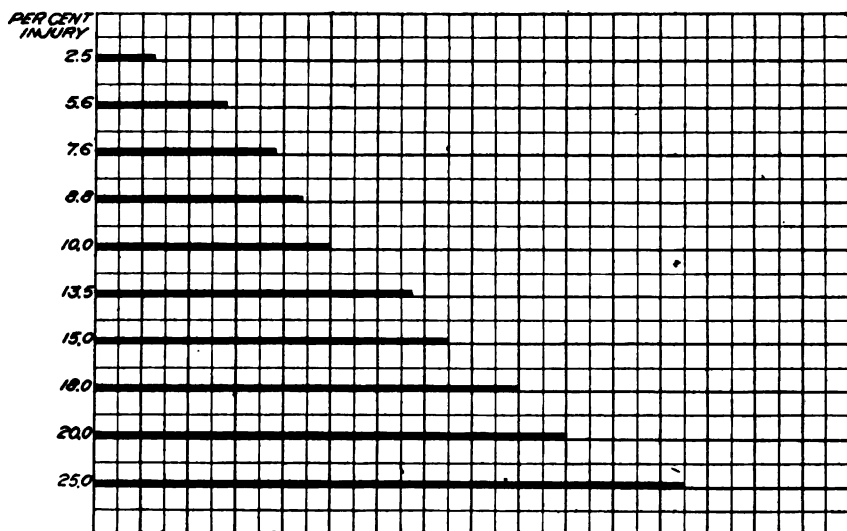


FIG. 7.—Diagram illustrating the average quantity of injured oranges found in bins or packed boxes.

THE INJURY OF THE FRUIT AN ECONOMIC PROBLEM.

After a careful study of the problem for three years, it is evident that the mechanical injury of the orange is partly inherent to the handling of a perishable crop, but that it is primarily related to the economic and social conditions surrounding the citrus-fruit industry. It is related to the large volume of business handled by growers and packers, to the character and quantity of the labor available, to the system of handling the labor, to the details of packing-house management, to the aim of the association and packer who handle

the fruit, and to the effect of sharp competition between those who handle the California citrus-fruit crop.

The industry has reached its present condition through gradual development. The one factor in this growth that stands out with prominence as a fundamental cause of careless handling is the effort to handle large quantities of fruit at the lowest possible cost. By having the fruit picked and packed by the box and by having other operations performed on the same principle, there have been developed labor methods, packing-house equipments, and systems of business practice that place a high premium on the quantity rather than the quality of the work accomplished. The payment of labor by the box has developed a class of pickers whose chief aim is to pick the greatest possible number of boxes. It is not unusual to see the professional picker, with a hoop fastened in the top of the picking sack to hold the mouth open, with a deft movement of the clippers cut the oranges and shoot them directly into the bag. Such effort led to the use of sharp-pointed clippers, or shears (fig. 1, a), which the picker could handle with great facility. It has developed the type of packing-house equipment shown in Plate III, figure 2. It is responsible for overcrowding the capacity of the average packing house, for the excessive speed of machinery, and for a general feeling among growers and packers that the continuous reduction in the fixed charges in the handling of the crop in California from year to year is an essential in successful orange handling. It is a common occurrence for a grower to change the agency for handling his fruit to another that will do it for a fraction of a cent a box less, the immediate saving being the factor that determines his action. There is an equal rivalry between the packing houses to reduce the cost of handling the fruit, and a similar desire to have it sold at the lowest charge for handling.

A REDUCTION IN THE COST OF HANDLING A PERISHABLE PRODUCT NOT ALWAYS JUSTIFIABLE.

The tendency to reduce the cost of producing and handling a crop is commendable from a business point of view. Probably no other fruit industry has reduced the necessary cost of handling and marketing the crop to such an extent as the citrus industry, largely as a result of the effective cooperative organization of the fruit growers. But in the handling of a perishable commodity it is false economy to reduce the cost of an operation if the change is detrimental to the keeping quality or attractiveness of the product. A laborer who picks 100 boxes of oranges a day at 3 cents a box, cuts 25 per cent with the clippers, and drops the fruit several feet into a bag is more expensive to the grower than one who picks 40 boxes for \$3 but

places the fruit in the picking boxes in sound condition. It is equally false economy to have the oranges packed at low cost in a house where the handling of the fruit is so rough and complicated as to make it susceptible to decay before it is loaded for shipment. The real economy of reducing the cost of an operation is determined by the effect on the keeping quality of the product. Every reduction that is made at the expense of the shipping and keeping quality of the fruit is not a saving to the industry, but in the end acts as an increase in the cost of handling by reducing the value of the fruit. Later in this bulletin it will be shown that the highest net returns in the citrus industry have followed an increased cost to insure a more careful handling of the product.

A WEAK POINT IN THE PRESENT METHOD OF HANDLING THE ORANGE.

There is another factor related to the cooperative method of handling, as well as to the method of handling the fruit by buyers and shippers, that is responsible for a large amount of rough handling. Neither the association, the shipper, nor the buyer can insure the careful handling of fruit where the picking and hauling are in the hands of the growers or of their representatives. In a general way, the packing association or shipper can advise the grower how to pick and haul the fruit, and lots of fruit that have been grossly mismanaged may be rejected; but it is impossible to insure a uniform condition in the fruit of different growers under these conditions. There is little incentive for the grower to handle his fruit with unusual care if it is to be pooled with the fruit of other growers who handle it carelessly. The tendency is for all growers to handle the fruit with but average care and for the careless grower to depend on a higher average handling by others to overcome the shiftless methods on his ranch. It is the tendency also for the average grower whose fruit is packed and sold for him by a dealer or agent to reduce the cost of picking and hauling the fruit to the packing house to the lowest possible figure, and if the fruit decays as a result of this bad handling to attribute it to the methods employed by the dealer or agent in packing and selling the fruit. A cooperative association or a dealer who handles the fruit for the growers either under a pooling system or for individual account needs to establish a standard condition as to freedom from mechanical injury of the fruit that enters the packing house and to provide a practical method of enforcing the requirements.

METHODS OF INSURING A UNIFORM CONDITION OF THE FRUIT.

There are at least two methods that may be adopted as a means of insuring a uniformly small percentage of injury in the fruit of different growers. The first is the picking of the fruit by gangs of

laborers under the control of the packing-house management. A number of cooperative associations and independent shippers have recently adopted this method of handling the fruit. The success of this plan depends on the cooperation of the growers, a tactful and efficient labor foreman, and the strong support of the foreman by the packing-house management to the end that the fruit may be picked carefully and economically. If the growers do not accept this plan cheerfully, if the picking foreman is inefficient, or if the packing-house management insists on reducing the cost of picking without regard to the effect on the condition of the fruit, such a system is doomed to failure.

A second, though less certain, means of securing a uniform condition of the fruit is by a system of inspecting the fruit in the groves and as it comes to the packing houses, in order that the persistently careless picker and grower may be located and advised as to the means of reducing the injury, and finally eliminated if his fruit does not reach the required standard. This system has already been adopted by a number of association houses and by a few independent shippers.

EXPERIMENTS WITH DIFFERENT METHODS OF HANDLING ORANGES.

The experimental investigation of the causes of decay in oranges has been conducted with a view to determining the following points: (1) The comparative susceptibility to decay of oranges handled in different ways for shipment after holding the fruit in the packing houses in California about two weeks; (2) the comparative susceptibility to decay of oranges handled in different ways for shipment when forwarded to New York under ventilation, icing, and precooling; (3) the comparative susceptibility to decay of oranges handled in different ways and shipped under different conditions, the decay being determined at intervals during a storage of the fruit in a common storage room in eastern markets.

Technical investigations in refrigeration, including the development and testing of various methods of cooling the orange for shipment and a determination of the changes in the temperatures of cars during the transcontinental trip when shipped under different methods, such as ventilation, icing, and precooling, have also been made.

THE EXPERIMENTS WITH ORANGES STORED IN PACKING HOUSES.

The primary object of the experiments with oranges stored in packing houses was to determine, under conditions that permitted the growers and packers to see the results, the comparative suscepti-

bility to decay of fruit that had been handled in different ways. A secondary object was to determine the comparative amount of decay in oranges handled similarly in different regions of the citrus-fruit belt.

The method of conducting these experiments was to select a quantity of apparently sound oranges from the picking boxes just as they were received from the grove, designating this lot as "unbrushed;" another lot of apparently sound fruit that had been run through the brushing machine and selected from the packing bins was designated as "brushed;" a third lot selected from either the drying rack or the packing bins, or that had been especially washed, was designated as "washed," and a fourth lot, in which each orange showed a visible injury, such as a clipper cut, punctures of various kinds, or other abrasions, was designated as "mechanically injured." In 1907 a comparison was made between the amount of decay of oranges washed in clean water and fruit washed in dirty water, similar to that used in commercial washing, or in clean water in which some blue-mold spores had been mixed. Several boxes of fruit of each lot were packed at one time and the fruit was left in the packing house for about two weeks, when it was examined for decay in the presence of growers and shippers.

These experiments were started in 1905 in 6 houses. In 1906 they were carried on in 15 houses and in 1907 in 31 houses. The experiments were usually begun in January and extended into April.

The work of the three years has shown that the orange as it comes from the tree in sound condition seldom develops decay and that brushing, washing, and the mechanical injury of the fruit in handling are followed by more or less loss, the greatest decay developing in the mechanically injured oranges.

The following table gives the average decay in the different lots of fruit in the three years. The data of 1907 appear also in figure 8, page 32.

TABLE I.—Average percentage of decay found in oranges subjected to various methods of treatment and in various conditions, held in packing houses in 1905, 1906, and 1907.

Year.	Treatment or condition of oranges.				
	Un-brushed.	Brushed.	Washed in clean water.	Washed in dirty water.	Mechanically injured.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1905.....	4.9	10.3	29.0
1906.....	1.5	4.7	10.3	36.8
1907.....	2.9	6.6	3.9	17.8	40.1

It should not be inferred from these figures that the unbrushed fruit in 1906 was less susceptible to decay than in 1905 or 1907. The fruit used in the experimental work was selected not by microscopic

examination, but by an inspection not more critical than a careful fruit grader could make. The fruit that appears to be sound may nevertheless be bruised to some extent, and although the bruises are not easily perceptible they are severe enough to be followed by the blue-mold decay. The inspection in 1905 was probably not as critical as the work that followed, on account of the comparative inexperience of the Department representatives. The important principle underlying these figures is that an apparently sound orange when it comes from the tree shows greater resistance to decay than the same fruit after it has been handled in different ways, that the fruit showing visible mechanical injury as a result of handling develops the maximum decay, and that the brushing and washing of sound oranges is more or less detrimental to their keeping quality.

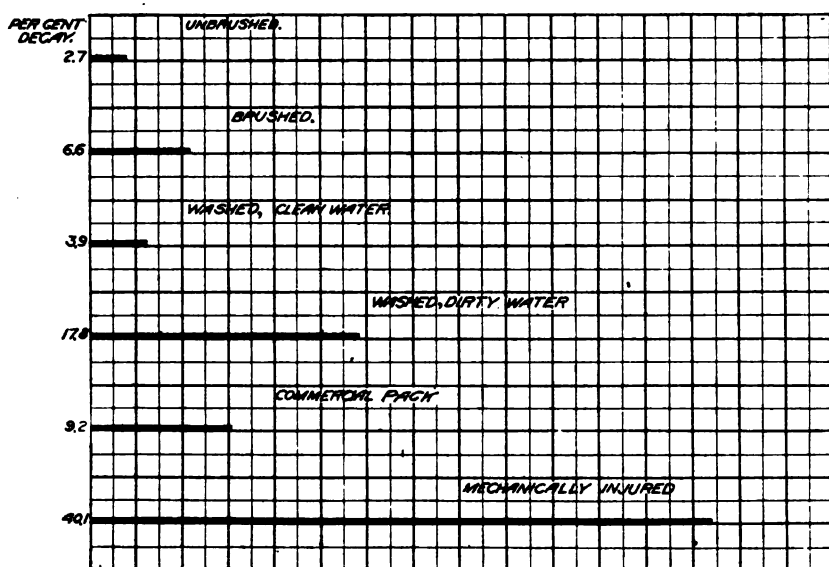


FIG. 8.—Diagram illustrating the percentage of decay in oranges held in packing houses, 1907.

Aside from these experiments, a number of comparisons have been made to determine the effect of dropping an orange 18 inches into the picking box. The data along this line are not extensive or conclusive, but they show that under some conditions the decay may be considerably increased by dropping the fruit a small distance.

THE DECAY IN ORANGES IN DIFFERENT SECTIONS.

The impression is general among growers and shippers in California that there is a wide difference in the inherent keeping quality of the oranges of different sections. The fruit from the upper San Bernardino Valley, for example, is usually said to have better ship-

ping qualities than the oranges grown in the more humid regions near the coast. As a matter of fact, the average condition of the fruit of these two regions on arriving in market probably conforms to this general impression. The results of the packing-house tests already referred to indicate that the difference in shipping quality is due more to the conditions under which the fruit is handled in these sections than to the inherent character of the fruit itself. By comparing the experiments conducted in a group of houses on the coast with those in a group in the upper San Bernardino Valley, the following average result appears:

TABLE II.—Average percentage of decay found in oranges in different sections of southern California subjected to various methods of treatment and in various conditions.

Locality where grown.	Treatment or condition of oranges.				
	Not brushed.	Brushed.	Washed in clean water.	Washed in dirty water.	Mechanically injured.
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Upper San Bernardino Valley.....	3.0	4.9	4.7	23.1	38.0
Coast region.....	3.1	9.1	5.2	18.2	51.1

There is practically no difference in the decay in the unbrushed fruit in the two regions. This shows the keeping quality of the sound fruit just as it comes from the tree. There is some difference in the brushed fruit, as the same types of brushes are not used in both sections, nor are the brushes always handled with equal care. When the fruit is washed in clean water the results are similar, the condition of handling in this case being similar and comparable. There is some difference in the decay in the mechanically injured fruit and in the oranges washed in dirty water, as the nature of the injury and the amount of blue mold in the dirty water were probably not comparable. These differences in decay are no greater than commonly occur in different experiments in handling the same type of fruit in the same house.

In order to compare the influence of the brushing of the fruit under similar conditions, the tests in the houses in each section using the same kind of brush have been brought together. In the upper valley the decay from brushing the fruit was 4.9 per cent and in the coast region 4.3 per cent, or practically the same result. The packing-house tests indicate that an orange with a sound skin is not more likely to decay when grown in the coast region than a similar orange grown in other parts of the orange belt and that a similar line of handling produces similar results in the different regions.

The difference that occurs in the amount of decay in different regions or in different houses in the same region is due primarily to

the conditions under which the fruit is handled. In the coast region in the past a large part of the fruit has had to be washed, while the fruit of the upper-valley districts has been shipped in a dry-brushed or unbrushed condition. Since these investigations were begun, the representatives of the Bureau of Plant Industry have had occasion to look into the conditions in many sections where the fruit developed unusually large amounts of decay. In every case the cause of the trouble has been found to be due to the conditions under which the fruit has been handled, including the influence of such matters as the care with which the scale insects are held in control in the groves, the business capacity of the directors of the association, the ability of the packing-house foreman, the system of handling labor in the groves and packing houses, the efficiency of the labor, the sanitary conditions in the packing houses, and the kind of packing-house equipment. Wherever these conditions have been bad a section has acquired the reputation of producing fruit that has poor shipping quality, and wherever these conditions have been favorable to the proper handling of the fruit there has been no trouble with its condition on arrival at destination.

By these remarks it is not intended to convey the impression that the fruit of all sections is alike. There is the widest difference in the quality, in the time of maturity, and in the color of oranges of different sections and in different groves in the same section. There is probably a good deal of difference in the susceptibility of the fruit of different regions to bruising, as there is a wide difference in the texture of the fruit. What is intended to be conveyed is that there is no practical difference in the amount of decay that develops even in the tenderest oranges of a section when the fruit is handled with enough care to prevent bruising.

THE DECAY IN ORANGES IN DIFFERENT PERIODS OF THE SEASON.

To determine the influence on decay of picking the oranges at different times during the season 20 boxes of the Washington Navel were carefully picked about every ten days from January to May from a grove of the Arlington Heights Fruit Company, Riverside, Cal. The fruit was held two weeks under conditions that were especially favorable to the development of rot. The decay in the fruit picked at different times is brought out in the chart shown as figure 9.

There was practically no difference in the amount of decay in the fruit at any time between January and May. The small amount of decay could usually be traced to mechanical injuries that were overlooked when the fruit was brought in from the groves, and the slight difference in the amount of decay at the different pickings could be

easily accounted for in this way. The trees were in bloom when the fruit was picked on March 23 and April 2.

The data from these tests are not extensive enough to be conclusive, but taken in connection with the other data accumulated they indicate that California oranges picked and handled with enough care to protect the skin from bruising are practically immune to decay, whether picked in a partially ripe or fully matured condition. In this connection the series of shipments of carefully handled fruit from February to May under ventilation, referred to on page 44, does not show an increase in decay as the season advanced.

It is popularly believed that the fruit is more susceptible to decay at the period just preceding and during the blooming of the trees. This belief does not appear to be well founded. The increase in decay that sometimes occurs in the shipments in February or March is probably related to rises in temperature in California at that time, causing the fruit to be loaded in a hot condition. There is often a period of hot weather for a few days each year at this time. The

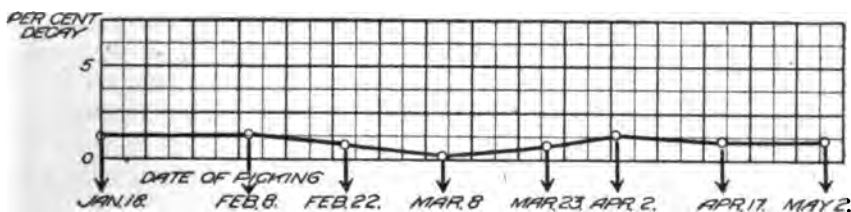


FIG. 9.—Diagram illustrating the percentage of decay in oranges picked at different times during the harvesting season, 1906.

fruit is still being shipped under ventilation. The oranges that go forward at that time from the sections that handle the fruit roughly develop excessive amounts of decay. This may be followed by cooler weather or by the adoption of icing in place of ventilation, and the decay falls off. Whenever the weather remains cool throughout the shipping season there appears to be no unusual increase in the amount of rot at the blooming time.

An increase in decay usually follows an overcrowded condition of the packing houses or a temporary shortage in the supply of cars in warm weather. It may also be serious at the height of the harvesting season. Under the first condition the fruit is handled with less than the usual care and is made more susceptible to rot. Under the second the decay begins to grow in the bruised fruit while the oranges are standing in the packing house. Under the third condition the grower has to employ a large amount of unskilled labor, as there is not enough skilled labor to harvest the crop at the height of the season, and the fruit is delivered to the packing house in poor physical condition.

In the commercial shipments the decay is usually worse in April and May than it is earlier in the season, largely because the average temperature is higher, causing the decay to start quickly, and also because it develops more readily in ripe bruised oranges than in fruit that is bruised but immature.

THE CURING OF ORANGES BEFORE PACKING.

At the time the investigation described in this bulletin was begun, it was a common practice to hold oranges in a packing house a few days before packing. This practice was referred to as "curing." It consisted in the wilting or the evaporation of a small amount of moisture from the skin of the orange, thereby making it more pliable and easier to pack. It was considered necessary to wilt the fruit in order that it might be pressed into place in the packing box without injury and to insure the arrival of the package in market in a tight condition. It was believed that by packing hard, freshly picked fruit the curing or wilting would occur in the box, and the pack would arrive at destination in slack condition. A final claim for curing was that much, if not all, of the decay resulting from mechanical injuries would be sufficiently developed to be noticed and discarded by the graders or packers by holding the fruit in the house a few days before packing.

The general claims for curing have not been found to be well established. Early in the shipping season, when the oranges are immature and the skin hard, wilting or curing undoubtedly facilitates the packing of fruit. Later in the season, when the fruit is ripe, the curing does not appear to improve this condition, as the fruit is naturally pliable. The arrival of oranges in a slack condition in the box is not due primarily to packing uncured fruit. It is the result of packing the fruit loosely and poorly in the box. If each orange is pressed firmly into place by the packer, the fruit can be shipped at any time of year as soon as it is picked, and the packages will arrive in full, firm condition. The average packer does not take time to press each orange firmly in place, especially if the packing is paid for by the box. The packages are filled high and the cover press is expected to do the work that should have been done by the packer. The press, however, only makes the upper layers of the fruit tight in a loosely packed box. The fruit settles during the trip and arrives in a loose condition. These remarks are based on the fact that many of the leading shippers have packed the fruit within twenty-four hours after picking during the last two years without complaint as to the condition of the pack on arrival.

It is not true, either, that the decay develops in the mechanically injured oranges during the curing period except in warm weather and in fruit that is most seriously injured. The decay may start to grow during this time, but it requires several days for it to progress far enough to soften the fruit and to be seen by a grader. The decay is less severe in the unpacked boxes than it is in the packed fruit, in which the moisture given off by transpiration is retained. If fruit can not be shipped quickly after picking it is better to leave it in an unpacked condition.

The curing of the orange does not appear to be detrimental to the shipping quality of sound fruit at any season, or to slightly injured fruit in cool weather. Early in the season it makes the fruit somewhat easier to handle by the packer, but under the conditions pertaining to the commercial handling of the fruit in California it probably does more harm than good by allowing the decay to begin to grow in the mechanically injured fruit. If this fruit soon after picking is shipped under refrigeration or enters cool territory soon after picking, the decay may not start to grow.

THE BRUSHING OF CALIFORNIA ORANGES.

The practice of brushing oranges grew up gradually in California. Practically all of the fruit was being either brushed or washed when the present investigation was begun. The fruit was brushed originally to remove the light coats of sooty-mold fungus or the dust that accumulates from the tillage of the groves in the dry season. The fruit was given a glossy appearance by the brushing similar to the artificial glossiness that is characteristic of the polished fruit sold from street stands. The shipper and the receiver finally considered it necessary to brush the fruit whether it was dirty or not, and brushing became established as a regular packing-house operation even in houses to which the fruit is delivered from the groves in a clean condition.

Several types of brushes have been developed in California. A kind commonly used is shown in Plate IV, figure 1. Some brush the fruit lightly, while the stiff fiber brushes or those not adjustable to fruit of different sizes may brush the oranges very harshly. In the packing-house experiments, the decay has often been raised from 10 to 40 per cent in small lots of fruit run through a brush of a harsh type or through a brush that was improperly adjusted. The injury from the brush generally arises from the inoculation of the mechanically injured parts of the skin with blue-mold spores that are attached to the bristles of the brush or by the actual puncturing of the skin by the bristles and inoculation at the same time in the case of the

harsh types or badly adjusted brushes. It is probable that light brushing is not injurious to sound oranges.

There is a wide difference in the quantity of dust and sooty mold on the fruit of different groves and in different seasons. All of the groves are comparatively free from dust during the rainy season, from January to April or May, and in groves that are well fumigated, and in most of those in the upper part of the San Bernardino Valley the fruit is practically free from the sooty-mold fungus.

It improves the appearance of an orange to have the dirt removed from the skin. It detracts from a moderately clean orange to have the natural bloom replaced by a gloss, and this altered appearance does not improve the selling value of the fruit. It is wholly unnecessary to brush a large part of the California crop, though it may be advisable to brush the fruit that grows on the rows along the highways, or to brush the entire crop after the rainy season is ended and the dust from the tillage of the land settles on the fruit. In Plate IV, figure 2, an arrangement is shown with a removable carrying belt placed on the box containing the brush. This belt carries the fruit from the hopper over the brush to the elevator leading to the sorting table. When a load of fruit requires it the belt is removed and the oranges are run through the brushes.

In 1906 the brushes were eliminated from two or three packing houses, and in 1907 at least a dozen houses, including those that shipped the brands which brought the highest prices throughout the season, forwarded the fruit without brushing.

THE WASHING OF CALIFORNIA ORANGES.

Oranges are washed primarily to remove the sooty-mold fungus that grows in the so-called honeydew exuded by the black scale (*Saissetia oleae* Bern.). The Valencia orange is sometimes washed to raise the grade by making the fruit clean and attractive, and the Washington Naval is occasionally washed with that end in view.

When the present investigation by the Bureau of Plant Industry was undertaken, from one-third to one-half of the oranges of California were washed, practically all of the fruit in some sections being treated in this way, especially where the growers had been overconfident in the parasite *Scutellista cyanea* Matsch or in the use of oil sprays as means of holding the black scale in check.

The honeydew from the black scale spreads out over the branches, leaves, and fruit, and in severe infestations the fungus which grows upon it makes the oranges black and unsightly. The fungus forms a thin skin-like covering over the orange which is removed by washing, or in light attacks by brushing the fruit. A Valencia orange

affected with sooty-mold fungus and one free from the trouble are shown in Plate VIII.

The injury arising from washing the orange is primarily due to the water of the tank becoming infested with spores of the blue mold. These spores are carried into the mechanical abrasions of the skin by the water, under conditions that favor the growth of the fungus. The decay in washed fruit is also increased from the fact that the fruit is handled through a complicated system of tanks, brushes, elevators, racks, and other machinery which multiplies the chances of mechanical injury. A good deal of the fruit is packed before it is thoroughly dry, thereby making conditions of moisture favorable for the development of decay in the packed fruit. This condition arises during cloudy weather when there is not sufficient sunshine to perfect the drying and at times when the fruit is not delivered to the packing house fast enough to keep the packers supplied with dry fruit.

The water is always more or less infected with the spores of the rot fungus. They are found abundantly on the skin of sound oranges and in the dirt from the bottom of the boxes; in practice, also, decaying oranges frequently pass into the tank. This condition becomes aggravated when the water is not changed frequently. It is least objectionable when fresh water is constantly running through the tank or when the oranges are run through brushes with the water sprayed over them. In the average house the water in the tanks was not changed oftener than once in every day or two until 1907, when in many of the houses the water was kept running constantly through the tanks. It apparently is not injurious to the orange to wash it in clean water, provided it is handled carefully in other respects.

The necessity for washing the fruit should be avoided.—The necessity for washing the orange should be avoided by a proper fumigation of the groves with cyanide of potassium or by spraying, if it can be effectively done, rather than by treating the fruit in the packing house. It has often been suggested that the blue mold might be killed by a disinfectant in the wash water, as is done with the parasitic fungus of the lemon which produces the brown rot. This does not appear from preliminary studies to be promising or advisable. If it were possible to kill the blue mold in the washing tank, it would place a premium on the shiftless management of the groves and on the rough, careless handling of the fruit. Fumigation, on the other hand, is one of the operations that promotes good orchard management; it maintains strong, healthy trees and fruit, and it reduces the cost of preparing the oranges for market in a manner that increases the keeping quality of the fruit.

The equipment of the average packing house, especially before 1907, was too complicated to permit of careful handling of the fruit. Some part or parts of the equipment were usually out of order, and there were additional chances for injury from the falling or rapid running of the oranges over gravity chutes or runs. Many of the packing houses have not been equipped on good mechanical principles or with proper regard for the effect of the handling of the fruit on its keeping quality. It is not too much to say that there was practically no consideration given to the effect of packing-house machinery and its installation on the carrying quality of the fruit from about 1895 to 1906, the development being made primarily to handle large quantities at low cost. Since 1906 a good many houses have been modified by the installation of a simpler type of machinery. A better idea of the former condition of many packing houses and of some houses at the present time may be had by referring to a typical example of improper equipment.

A prominent house that had the reputation of shipping fruit of poor keeping quality was running the oranges through about a thousand feet of machinery of different kinds. In order to force the fruit through the machinery as rapidly as possible, a boy shoved the oranges into the washing machine with a paddle, the fruit clogging in the machine frequently and becoming crushed. As many as 1,200 boxes were sometimes run through the washer in ten hours. The capacity of the elevator leading from the washer to the drying racks was overtaxed, and the oranges were dropping back into the washer from heights varying from one to several feet. The fruit was frequently shoved down the drying racks with poles, and in practically every rack the oranges were bumping over the heads of nails or slivers of wood protruding into the runways. It was a common thing to see a boy kick the oranges into place when the bins became clogged. In this packing house eleven different places were located where the fruit dropped from 1 to 2½ feet or where the oranges were delivered with force at the bottom of a long gravity chute. As a result, crushed and broken oranges could be found at any time along the runways through which the fruit was obliged to pass. It is a tribute to the shipping quality of the California orange that so large a proportion of the fruit of this house arrived in market in sound condition after this harsh type of handling.

Features to be avoided in a packing house.—It is difficult to point out a single place where fruit is likely to be injured in different packing houses, as the arrangement of the machinery varies widely. There are a few features in the arrangement of every packing house

that ought to be considered. A house should be equipped in the simplest possible manner in order to avoid handling the fruit more than is necessary. The dropping of the fruit or its swift delivery from the carrying belts should be avoided. Overhead sizers and all gravity chutes are to be condemned. The slow-moving, flat carrying belts should take the place of the gravity chute, as in this way the fruit may be carried wherever desired without injury. The gravity sorting table ought to be replaced by a low belt sorting table.

The hopper is a source of much injury from the rough dumping of the fruit from the picking boxes. A hopper ought not to be higher than the brush to which it leads, and the fruit may be carried to the brush by belts extending into the hopper instead of by a steep gravity run. The present hoppers are too high to make the emptying of the boxes easy. The hopper ought to be well padded.

It is a question worth considering whether the hopper can not be eliminated from many houses and the fruit delivered to the sorting belts or on a carrying belt leading to the sorting table. It is entirely practical, if necessary, to deliver the fruit on these belts by taking the oranges out of the boxes by hand.

There is also much injury to the oranges in dropping into and in delivering from the weighing machines and in the drop of the fruit into the packing bins of various kinds, none of which prevents a considerable fall of the fruit when it enters the bin. Another source of injury is the rapid delivery of the fruit from a carrying belt to the elevators, scales, bins, or other part of the machinery to which the belts lead. This defect is the result of the use of narrow belts which have to be run at high speed to meet the requirements of the house rather than the use of wider belts of larger carrying capacity.

There has been a great improvement in packing-house equipment in the last two or three years, but the opportunity for the development of simpler types of houses and equipment has not yet been exhausted.

The handling of the packing-house force and equipment is also an important factor. Unless the packing-house manager is adapted to the handling of labor and can keep the machinery in smooth running order, no amount of improvement in the machinery of the packing house can overcome the bad effect on the fruit of careless, rough, undisciplined labor.

In addition to the need of a simple equipped and well-managed house, the most rigid attention needs to be given to the removal of decaying fruit from the house and its surroundings. It is not uncommon to see rotting oranges in the bins, on the floor, and on the ground around the house. Under these conditions, the houses are

filled with myriads of blue-mold spores. This lack of attention to the cleanliness of a packing house has a bad effect on the labor, and it is invariably accompanied by rough handling and slovenly work in general. On the other hand, there is not a packing house in California that is leading in the careful handling of its fruit that does not use rigid care to keep the house and its surroundings clean and sanitary.

THE DECAY OF ORANGES IN TRANSIT.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE EXPERIMENTS.

The investigation of the decay of oranges during transportation included 40 shipments in 1905, 70 shipments in 1906, and 187 shipments in 1907. Nearly all of the fruit was forwarded to New York. The leading object of this investigation was to determine the relation of the following factors to the development of decay in transit: (1) Preparing the orange for shipment in different ways in California; (2) forwarding it at different lengths of time after packing, and (3) shipping the fruit under different systems of transportation. An investigation has also been made of the changes that occur in the temperature in refrigerator cars when handled under different conditions during the transcontinental trip, and a number of technical engineering problems connected with refrigeration have received consideration. The shipments have included duplicate lots of apparently sound brushed or unbrushed fruit, of sound washed fruit, of the regular commercially packed fruit, and of oranges showing visible mechanical injuries, such as stem punctures, clipper cuts, and other types of abrasions. The different lots have been packed from the bins from which the commercially packed fruit was taken by careful sorting by representatives of the Bureau of Plant Industry. Duplicate lots of fruit have been forwarded as soon as packed and on the second and the fourth days after packing under (1) ventilation, (2) icing, and (3) precooling followed by icing. The decay has been determined by Bureau representatives by the inspection of every orange on the arrival of the fruit in New York.

Through the cooperation of the shippers and receivers, the fruit for these shipments has been turned over to the Bureau of Plant Industry for experimental use and after inspection in New York has been returned to the receiver. The railroad companies have extended every facility for the study of the conditions in transit, and the cold-storage interests of southern California made it possible to carry on technical as well as commercial investigations of the precooling process.

The result of the shipments of each of the three years has been consistent with the others. It is impossible to record the details of each shipment during the three years. The shipments of 1907, which were on the most comprehensive scale and are most representative of commercial conditions, will be discussed as representative of the entire work.

THE SHIPMENTS UNDER VENTILATION.

The shipments under ventilation began in 1907 in February and extended into May. During February and March the weather was cold in California as well as during the trip across the continent. The temperature of the fruit was not often above 50° F. when loaded, and was frequently as cold as the precooled fruit. On the average, the fruit was probably cooler during the entire trip than the oranges shipped under ordinary icing later in the season. The average decay in the shipments under ventilation, therefore, was comparatively low.

There were two series of shipments under ventilation. The first included apparently sound brushed and washed fruit, commercially packed fruit, and mechanically injured fruit. One-third of each lot went forward as soon as packed and the remainder on the second and the fourth days after packing. This fruit was taken from sections in which the fruit is handled with average commercial care, not representing the roughest type or the most careful type of handling. The fruit was shipped in February. The second series was taken from a single house in which the fruit is handled with care in the groves and in the packing house. It represents the regular commercial pack of the house, the fruit showing on the average not more than 1 to 3 per cent of mechanical injury. The fruit of this house is not brushed. The shipments in the second series began in February and extended into May. The result of the shipments under the first series, shown also in figure 10, is brought out in the following table:

TABLE III.—*Percentage of decay in oranges handled with average care, shipped under ventilation, February, 1907.*

Treatment or condition of fruit.	Decay following immediate shipment and approximate delay of 2 days and 4 days.			
	(None.)	(2 days.)	(4 days.)	Average.
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Brushed fruit, apparently sound.....	1.4	2.2	2.7	2.1
Washed fruit, apparently sound.....	1.7	3.7	5.1	3.5
Commercially packed fruit.....	2.1	4.8	5.3	4.1
Mechanically injured fruit.....	9.4	15.0	21.7	15.4
Average.....	3.6	6.4	8.7

Two important factors are brought out by these shipments: (1) The oranges that are handled the most simply, i. e., the apparently sound brushed fruit, develop the least decay, while the fruit that is

sorted from the same bins but has been injured in handling develops the greatest amount of decay; (2) the fruit, taken as a whole, that was shipped out promptly after packing developed little decay, while the fruit that was delayed before shipment developed a good deal of decay, the injury from the delay being least severe in the sound brushed fruit and greatest in the fruit that was mechanically injured. The increase in the decay in the apparently sound brushed and washed fruit as a result of the delay in shipping is probably due to the fact that it was not possible to eliminate all of the injured oranges in sorting the fruit from the bins.

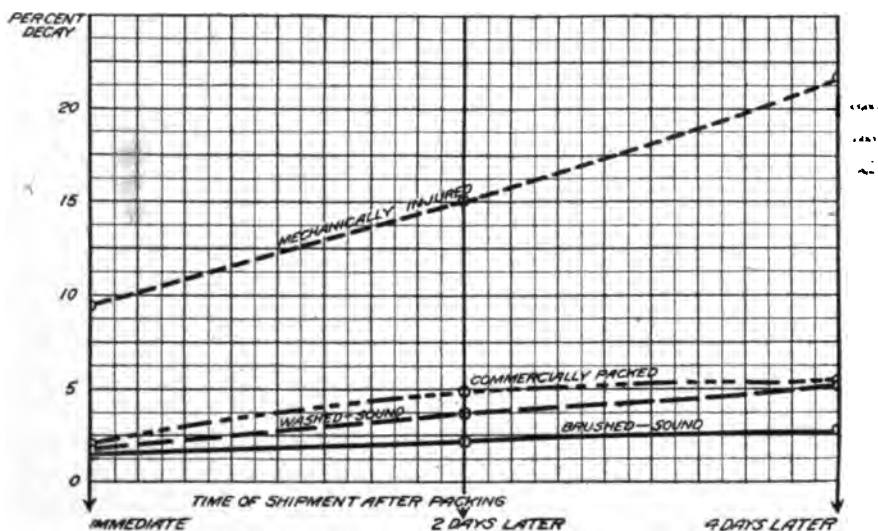


FIG. 10.—Diagram illustrating the percentage of decay in oranges handled with average care, shipped under ventilation, February, 1907.

The result of the shipments under the second series, i. e., of fruit handled carefully in the groves and packing houses, is brought out in the following table:

TABLE IV.—Percentage of decay in oranges handled carefully under commercial conditions and shipped under ventilation from February to May, 1907.

Date of first shipment.	Decay following immediate shipment and approximate delay of 2 days and 4 days.			
	(None.)	(2 days.)	(4 days.)	Average.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
February 26.....	0.7	0.8	1.3	0.9
March 19.....	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.8
April 1.....	1.0	1.9	2.3	1.7
April 19.....	0.8	1.4	2.7	1.6
May 1.....	2.7	1.7	2.7	2.4
Average.....	1.4	1.5	1.9

This table shows that oranges can be handled in a large commercial business with enough care to insure the arrival of the fruit in market in sound condition when shipped under ventilation through a large part of the Washington Navel shipping season. It also shows that there is little practical difference in decay in sound fruit shipped in February or in the succeeding months. As the fruit of this house has shown no better inherent keeping quality than other sound fruit from the same region, a brief description of the methods employed in handling the crop will be useful in showing how a crop is carefully handled in a large commercial business.

Methods used in preventing decay in oranges in a large commercial business.—The fruit shipped under the last series was grown and packed by a corporation owning several hundred acres of groves and packing its own fruit. When the present investigation of the Bureau of Plant Industry was undertaken in 1905, the fruit from this house sometimes arrived in market showing from 5 to 30 per cent of decay. The handling of the fruit was done with the average care used in preparing the fruit for market at that time. An investigation showed that 20 to 25 per cent of the oranges were cut with the clippers or were stem punctured, and that the packing house, which was equipped with overhead sizers, contributed to the further injury of the fruit. In 1906 and in 1907 the fruit was picked with care. The labor in the groves is paid by the day. It is under the management of a competent foreman. As a rule the orange as cut from the tree has a long stem, and a second cut removes the stem close to the fruit. The pickers average from 40 to 50 boxes a day, and the clipper cutting and stem puncturing have been reduced to from 1 to 3 per cent. The loading and the hauling of the boxes to the packing house are done with care. Gravel is kept out of the boxes and they are not filled full enough to bruise the oranges on the top when the boxes are stacked. The packing house is handled by a skillful foreman. The oranges are not brushed. The machinery is of the simplest kind and is run at comparatively low speed. The packing and the loading of the cars are done with care. The packers average from 50 to 60 boxes a day. The fruit has been shipped under ventilation until about two months after most of the shipments from southern California have begun to be forwarded under ice.

From the business standpoint this fruit took high rank in the market as soon as careful handling methods were adopted in 1906, and it has held it ever since. In addition to a good pack, it has commanded the confidence of buyers on account of arriving in sound condition day after day. The excess in net return has been many times greater than the extra cost of careful handling. The extra cost of handling the fruit carefully has probably not amounted to 10 cents a box.

What has been accomplished here can be duplicated, so far as the sound arrival of the fruit is concerned, by any other shipper in California who will preserve the natural keeping quality of the fruit by handling it carefully in the grove and packing house rather than attempting to handle the shipments at the lowest possible cost under conditions that make the fruit susceptible to decay.

THE SHIPMENTS UNDER ICE.

The shipments under ice in 1907 began in March and extended to the last of May. They were made from different parts of the citrus

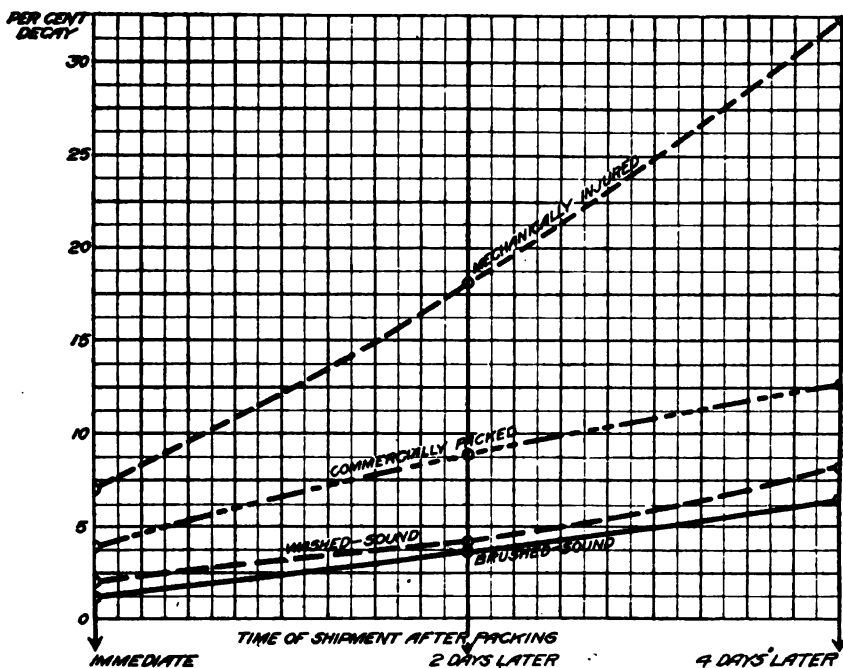


FIG. 11.—Diagram illustrating the percentage of decay in oranges handled rather roughly, shipped under ice, February to April, 1907.

belt. There were two series of shipments under ice. The first was from a group of houses in which the fruit was handled in the groves and packing houses rather roughly. It included apparently sound brushed and washed fruit, commercially packed fruit, and mechanically injured fruit. The second series was from a group of houses in which the fruit was handled in the groves and packing houses with more than average care. It included apparently sound brushed fruit, commercially packed fruit, and mechanically injured fruit.

The result of the shipments under the first series, shown also in figure 11, is brought out in Table V:

TABLE V.—Percentage of decay in oranges handled rather roughly and shipped under ice, February to April, 1907.

Treatment or condition of fruit.	Decay following immediate shipment and approximate delay of 2 days and 4 days.			
	(None.)	(2 days.)	(4 days.)	Average.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Brushed fruit, apparently sound.....	1.2	3.7	6.4	3.8
Washed fruit, apparently sound.....	2.0	4.2	8.1	4.8
Commercially packed fruit.....	3.9	8.9	12.6	8.5
Mechanically injured fruit.....	7.0	18.1	32.4	19.2
Average.....	3.5	8.7	14.9

Two important factors similar to those developed in the shipments under ventilation are brought out by these shipments: (1) The decay is least in the fruit that is handled the least, i. e., the apparently sound brushed fruit, and greatest in the fruit that is mechanically injured; (2) the decay increases as the time between packing and shipping increases. The delay in shipping the fruit causes the least injury to the soundest fruit and develops the greatest injury in the mechanically injured oranges.

The result of the shipments from the houses in which the fruit was handled with care is brought out in the following table:

TABLE VI.—Percentage of decay in oranges handled carefully and shipped under ice, March to May, 1907.

Treatment or condition of fruit.	Decay following immediate shipment and approximate delay of 2 days and 4 days.			
	(None.)	(2 days.)	(4 days.)	Average.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Brushed fruit, apparently sound.....	1.0	1.8	2.6	1.8
Commercially packed fruit.....	1.0	2.6	4.6	2.7
Mechanically injured fruit.....	7.9	9.0	14.7	10.5
Average.....	3.3	4.5	7.3

As in the other series under ice, the least decay developed in the sound brushed fruit and the greatest amount occurred in the mechanically injured oranges. The decay is proportional to the length of time that elapses between packing and shipping. The decay in all of the shipments in the second series is less than that in the fruit that was handled more roughly, on account of the sounder condition of the fruit.

A practical illustration of careful handling methods.—There are included in the last series shipments from a grower with extensive groves, whose fruit early in the season of 1907 arrived in New York in bad condition. Some of the carloads developed as much as 25 per cent of decay. Both the shipper and the receiver thought the decay was due to excessive tenderness of the fruit brought on by over-

fertilizing or to other methods followed in handling the groves. An investigation of this case showed that about 20 per cent of the fruit was mechanically injured in handling. The pickers were paid by the box. It was not considered essential to ship the fruit as soon as it was picked. The packing-house machinery was not well adapted to the careful handling of the fruit, and in the packing house the labor was done with no great care.

The grower decided to change his method of handling the crop. Two or three foremen were tried in the groves before a satisfactory man was found to handle the picking gang; the labor was paid by the day, the picking was done with care, clipper cutting and other injuries were reduced to an average of about 5 per cent, the packing-house equipment was remodeled and simplified, the fruit was not brushed, and it was delivered by hand from the picking boxes to a wide belt that led to the sorting table. The packing-house operations were conducted with more care than formerly. The result of these changes is one of the most striking that has come under the observation of the representatives of the Bureau of Plant Industry.

The decay in the commercial shipments disappeared as soon as the old methods were changed and did not reappear throughout the season. From the business standpoint the brands from this grower, which up to this time had been handled with caution by the New York buyers, commanded confidence and sold at prices not often surpassed by other brands of fruit. The fruit from this house handled in the experimental shipments developed the following average decay: Apparently sound unbrushed fruit, 1.2 per cent; commercially packed fruit from the same bins, 4.1 per cent; mechanically injured fruit from the same bins, 14 per cent. This grower has recently stated that by insisting rigidly on the careful handling of the oranges the net increased receipts averaged from 50 cents to \$1.50 a box after the change in methods was adopted.

An illustration of better handling methods.—There were also included in the shipments under ice oranges from an association that in 1905 had the reputation of producing fruit of the poorest carrying quality, though excellent in other respects. An inquiry in several markets showed that the receivers always expected excessive decay in the brands of this fruit. Many of the growers believed that the decay was due to mysterious local climatic and soil conditions. An investigation of the case in 1906 showed that the growers had depended on the *Scutellista cyanea* Matsch to hold the black scale in check and little fumigation or spraying had been done in the section for three or four years. The groves were badly infested with scale. Probably 90 per cent of the fruit had to be washed. The packing-

house management exercised little control over the picking of the fruit. On the whole, it was carelessly picked, much of it showing from 25 to 30 per cent of injury. The handling of the fruit in other respects was done with average care. The packing house was of the type shown in Plate III, figure 2. The fruit that was washed passed through more than a thousand feet of machinery of different kinds before it was packed. The fruit often remained in the house a week or more before it was shipped.

As the conditions in this association were typical of many others, both packing-house experiments and shipping experiments were carried on during 1906 and 1907. In 1906 the fruit in the packing-house experiments developed the following amount of decay: Apparently sound unbrushed fruit, 1.9 per cent; apparently sound dry-brushed fruit, 4.2 per cent; apparently sound fruit run through the washers and all other machinery, 10 per cent; mechanically injured fruit, 23 per cent.

The growers were convinced from these experiments that the fruit was not inherently poor in keeping quality. There was a general fumigation of the groves in the section in the autumn of 1906, and not more than 50 per cent of the fruit was washed in 1907. The overhead machinery was eliminated, the equipment considerably simplified and changed, the picking was done with more care in 1907, part of it by a picking crew under the control of the packing house, and the fruit was shipped out more quickly whenever the car shortage did not delay the shipments. In 1907 the average decay in the shipping experiments was as follows: Apparently sound brushed fruit, 1.8 per cent; apparently sound washed fruit, 2.6 per cent; commercially packed fruit, 4.8 per cent; mechanically injured fruit, 26.9 per cent.

This association has not yet reached the limit of practical improvement, but the reputation of its brands of fruit has already been elevated to a higher class, as the fruit has continued to arrive in the markets in better condition than formerly.

THE SHIPMENTS OF PRECOOLED FRUIT.

The shipments of precooled oranges in 1907 were begun in March and extended into May. They included apparently sound brushed and washed fruit, commercially packed fruit, and mechanically injured fruit, placed in cold storage at different lengths of time after packing and allowed to remain there until the fruit reached a temperature of 35° to 40° F., when it was shipped in refrigerator cars cooled by icing before the oranges were loaded.

The result of the shipments from a group of houses in which the fruit is handled roughly in the groves and packing houses is shown in the table following and also in figure 12:

TABLE VII.—Percentage of decay in precooled oranges, March to May, 1907.

Treatment or condition of fruit.	Decay following immediate cooling after packing and a delay of 2 days and 4 days.			
	(None.)	(2 days.)	(4 days.)	Average.
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Brushed fruit, apparently sound.....	0.1	2.3	3.4	1.9
Washed fruit, apparently sound.....	0.8	2.3	5.5	2.9
Commercially packed fruit.....	2.2	6.2	9.1	5.8
Mechanically injured fruit.....	3.0	9.2	13.9	8.7
Average.....	1.5	5.0	8.0

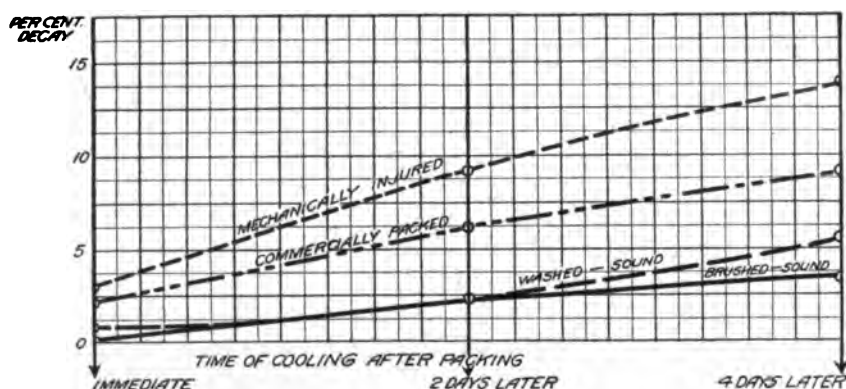


FIG. 12.—Diagram illustrating the percentage of decay in oranges cooled before shipping, March to May, 1907.

It will be seen from the table and from figure 12 that the apparently sound brushed fruit decayed least and that there was a progressive increase in the decay through the washed, the commercially packed, and the mechanically injured fruit. This increase in respect to the different types of fruit is similar to that occurring in the shipments under both ventilation and ice. The precooled shipments also bear out the principle of the shipments under ventilation and ice in that the least decay developed in the oranges that were cooled quickly after packing, and considerable decay developed in the fruit in which there was a delay in cooling after it was packed. It appears to be as essential to cool the fruit quickly if it is to be cooled before shipment as it is to ship it promptly after packing, under ventilation or ice. If the decay has an opportunity to develop for several days after the fruit is packed, it can not be eliminated by cooling the fruit to a lower temperature later on.

A COMPARISON OF THE DECAY FOUND IN CONNECTION WITH THE DIFFERENT METHODS OF SHIPMENT.

By comparing the data under the different methods of shipment it will be seen that the apparently sound brushed fruit arrived under all conditions of shipment with the least decay; that the apparently sound washed fruit, which is more susceptible to decay on account of the washing and additional handling to which it is subjected, decayed more; that the commercially packed fruit, which contains more or less injured fruit, decayed still more, and that the greatest amount of decay developed in the mechanically injured fruit. Sound fruit to start with, therefore, is the foundation for sound fruit in market under all methods of shipment.

It is equally clear that it is essential to ship the fruit promptly after packing or to cool it quickly if it is to be cooled before shipment. A delay of two days in shipping under ventilation or ice or in the cooling of the fruit resulted in an increase in decay, while a delay of four days developed a still greater amount, the increase being least in the apparently sound dry-brushed fruit and greatest in the mechanically injured fruit. It is better to leave the fruit on the trees until it can be shipped than to pick it and leave it in the packing house several days before shipment unless the weather is cold enough to retard the development of decay.

As to the amount of decay under the different methods of shipment, the least decay developed in the precooled fruit, provided the shipments from the houses that handle the fruit roughly, as shown in figures 10, 11, and 12, are compared. On the other hand, there was less decay in the carefully handled commercial shipments under ventilation, discussed on page 44, than in any other series, notwithstanding the fact that the shipments extended through a greater length of time than those that were iced or precooled. This was due to the sounder condition of this fruit as a result of the careful handling methods used in its preparation for market. It will be seen also that the decay in the fruit shipped under ice from the group of houses that handle oranges carefully, discussed on page 47, is less than the decay in the roughly handled fruit cooled before shipment, discussed on page 46 and shown in figure 11.

The comparative data bring out clearly that if the fruit is uninjured when it leaves California it is likely to arrive in the East in comparatively sound condition, and that under adverse conditions, such as a delay in shipping the fruit, there is less decay in apparently sound fruit than in oranges that have been injured by handling. These data show clearly that it is detrimental to the shipping quality to delay the shipment of the fruit after it is picked and packed, and,

finally, that fruit which is susceptible to decay develops the least trouble when shipped under the precooling method.

THE OBJECT OF COOLING FRUIT BEFORE SHIPMENT.

The principal object of cooling fruit before shipment is to quickly retard the ripening processes and the development of decay and to equalize the temperature in the car during the trip. In ordinary iced shipments the fruit is loaded in a car in a warm condition. It requires several days after the fruit is loaded before the temperature of the fruit is reduced to a degree of cold that retards the ripening and the decay. The ripening springs forward with unusual rapidity as soon as a fruit is picked, and as the air of the car is moist from the transpiration of the fruit the conditions are favorable to the rapid development of decay. In a refrigerator car the fruit is cooled by a slow gravity circulation of air from the ice bunkers. The temperature of the air as it leaves the bunkers may fall as low as 34° F. It is warmed by contact with the fruit and grows warmer as it ascends and reenters the ice bunkers of the car. The temperature in the top of the car is several degrees warmer than in the bottom during the first part of the trip, as shown in figure 20, but this difference gradually grows less as the fruit becomes cold.

These are fundamental difficulties in the present methods of handling perishable fruits. They limit the distribution of fruit to the area over which the top tiers of packages can be safely shipped, thereby preventing the development of the most distant domestic and foreign markets. They make it necessary to harvest the summer fruits prematurely to provide against the ripening that takes place in transit, thereby placing large quantities of insipid, flavorless peaches, plums, and other fruits before the consumers.

THE REFRIGERATION OF CITRUS FRUITS IN TRANSIT.

All of the considerations previously mentioned do not apply to the shipment of oranges under the ordinary methods of refrigeration. The ripening processes in citrus fruits proceed so slowly and are of such a nature that it is not necessary to ice the cars to retard the ripening even with ripe fruit in hot weather. The citrus fruits are iced primarily to retard the development of decay and secondarily to retain the fresh appearance of the fruit on arrival in market by preventing undue evaporation from the skin during the trip. A carload of oranges under refrigeration cools down slowly, as each orange is partly insulated in the paper wrapper. The loose ends of the wrappers make a layer of paper between the rows of oranges, and the fruit is packed so firmly that this prevents a free circulation of cold air

around each orange. The cooling is done by conduction of heat from orange to orange and to the air surrounding the packages. In warm weather a car of fruit often covers from one-fourth to one-third of the trip across the continent before the temperature of the oranges drops to 50° F., as shown in figures 18 and 19. The fruit, therefore, may decay during the first part of the trip if it has been handled in such a way as to make it susceptible to decay, especially if it is not shipped promptly after picking and packing. If it is shipped promptly it does not decay excessively except in hot weather, as will be seen by reference to figure 11. The icing of the fruit retards the development of decay temporarily. It transfers the decay from the shipper to the receiver. It does not affect the shipping quality, except the general appearance, or the keeping quality of sound oranges, but it is a means of overcoming for the time being the bad effect of handling the fruit improperly in the groves and packing houses.

THE COOLING OF ORANGES BEFORE TRANSPORTATION.

The cooling of the orange before shipment insures less decay in transit in poorly handled fruit, as the fruit is started in a cold rather than a warm condition. The fruit arrives in sounder condition, but the oranges that might have decayed in transit under ventilation or ordinary icing decay after the fruit is removed to a warm temperature unless it passes quickly into consumption, as shown in figures 14 and 15. Icing or precooling used primarily to overcome the effect of improper methods of handling in the groves and packing houses should be severely condemned, as it is a means of deceiving the purchaser who buys fruit that is apparently sound only to find the decay developing as soon as the fruit is removed to a warm temperature.

The use of icing or of precooling as a means of overcoming losses that the grower and shipper can not prevent in the ordinary course of business is commendable and is essential in the handling of most of the orange crop in California in warm weather.

The precooling of citrus fruits is worthy of consideration from other points of view. It appears to be possible to save ice in transit by loading the fruit in a cold rather than a hot condition, and it seems to make it possible to increase the freight-carrying capacity of a car if the fruit is properly cooled, without increasing the probability of decay. Theoretically the heat withdrawn in reducing a carload of 384 boxes of oranges from 70° to 40° F. is equivalent to the melting of about 2.6 tons of ice. The rest of the ice used in transit is consumed in protecting the fruit against the heat that comes in through the car and in cooling the car itself. The cars,

however, have to be iced before loading when cold fruit is shipped in them, a practice that is not followed under ordinary icing. The saving of ice in precooled fruit when the cars are reiced as often as they are under ordinary icing is slight and does not appear to be of practical importance. The saving comes, however, from the fact that it does not seem necessary to reice precooled fruit during the first part of the trip as often as it is done in ordinary icing. In the shipments in which the temperatures in the cars have been under observation during the transcontinental trip, the temperature of the fruit cooled to 35° and 40° F. has not begun to rise, even in hot weather, until a third or a half of the transcontinental trip has been covered, while in cooler weather the cars have covered the entire trip to New York without a detrimental rise in temperature, often arriving with at least a ton of ice in the bunkers. Under regular icing the cars are reiced six or eight times during a transcontinental trip. Representative records of precooled cars shipped from California with initial icing only are shown in figures 24 and 25.

It is not intended to draw conclusions from the data at hand as to the effect of precooling as a means of saving ice, but rather to present a limited amount of data to show that this phase of the subject is worthy of careful consideration on the part of shippers and transportation companies.

The second point worthy of consideration is the possible increase in the freight-carrying capacity of a car when loaded with fruit that has been cooled properly for shipment. Under the present method of shipment, the minimum freight weight of a carload of perishable produce is established not by the actual carrying capacity of the car, but by the height to which it is safe to load the car without excessive decay in the top tier or tiers of fruit and by the spacing between the packages that it is necessary to leave for a free circulation of air.

In the experimental shipments of the Bureau of Plant Industry, a number of 40-foot cars have been forwarded with 549 instead of 384 boxes, the latter number being a standard load under ordinary icing. The increase has been accomplished by loading the cars 7 rows of boxes wide, leaving all of the space next to the walls of the car, and 3 tiers high, the upper tier being laid on the side, instead of 6 rows wide and 2 tiers high, as loaded under ordinary icing. The standard method of loading is shown in figure 3. The method of loading with 549 boxes is shown in figure 13. Under the latter method of loading the fruit may arrive in New York in hot weather with a difference in temperature of 5 to 10 degrees between the top and bottom tiers of fruit, as shown in figure 23, but as the temperature of the fruit is low when it is loaded, it appears to be safe to ship oranges in this

manner in cool weather. In hot weather the cars can be loaded 2 tiers high and 7 rows wide, making 448 boxes. In the first case the capacity of the car is increased 165 boxes, or 11,880 pounds, and in the second case 64 boxes, or 4,608 pounds. In a train of 30 cars the load is increased 356,400 pounds in the first case or 138,240 pounds in the second without adding dead weight to be hauled in the form of extra cars.

This phase of the subject seems worthy of careful consideration on the part of shippers and transportation companies, especially in a time of car shortage.

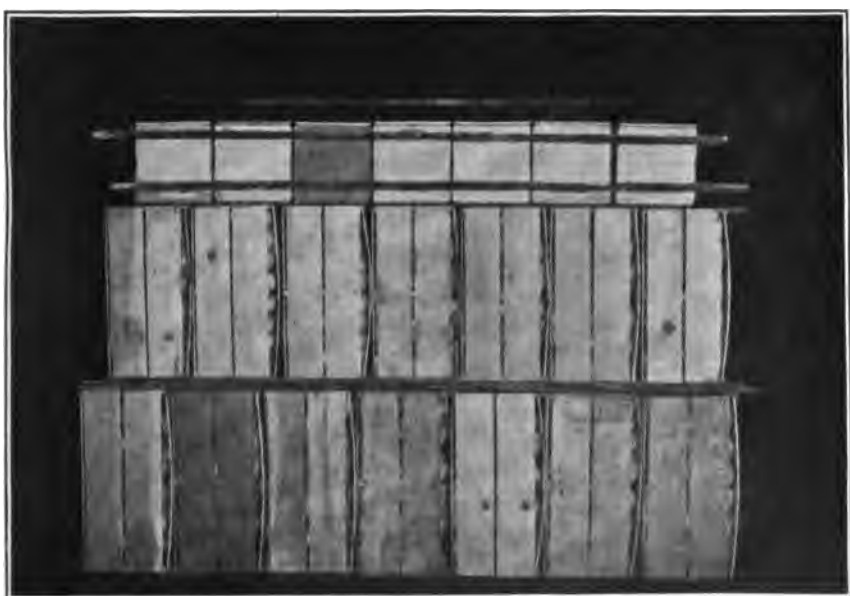


FIG. 13.—Boxes of oranges packed in accordance with the method used in loading a car with 549 boxes.

HISTORICAL DATA ON THE PRECOOLING OF ORANGES.

The first precooling of oranges was done at the plant of the Los Angeles Ice and Cold Storage Company, Los Angeles, Cal., in the spring of 1905. At that time several carloads of fruit were cooled to 35° to 40° F. in the warehouse for the Bureau of Plant Industry, and, through the cooperation of this company, about 10 loaded cars were cooled by forcing cold air from a coil room in the cold-storage house through ducts which led to the car and back to the coil room. The cold air could be forced in either direction through the cars. A general view of the plant used in 1905 is shown in Plate IX, figure 1.

The same line of work was continued in 1906 by the Bureau of Plant Industry, the fruit being cooled in the cold-storage warehouse.

A 3-ton ice machine was installed by a commercial company in a packing house at Arlington, Cal., in the spring of 1906, from which cold air was forced through a loaded car and back over a series of ammonia coils, and so on continuously around the circuit. The plant was built on a so-called intermittent vacuum principle, the object being to reduce the atmospheric pressure in the car frequently by a fan, thereby drawing the warm air out of the packages, to be replaced by the cold air when the cold current was again turned on. The capacity of this plant was too small for the purpose of either a practical or experimental demonstration of its value.

In the spring of 1907 the Bureau of Plant Industry had erected, under the direction of Mr. S. J. Dennis, expert in refrigeration, an experimental plant in cooperation with the Los Angeles Ice and Cold Storage Company, for the purpose of making accurate tests of the

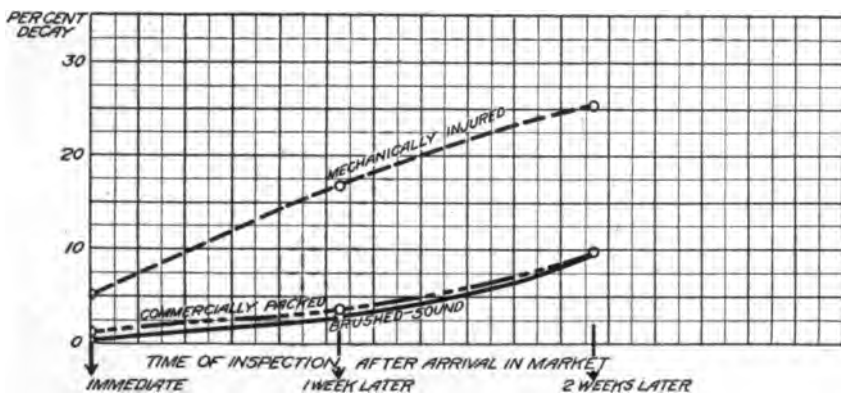


FIG. 14.—Diagram illustrating the percentage of decay upon arrival in market and for two weeks thereafter of precooled oranges handled carefully, 1907.

cooling of oranges in cars by forcing cold air through the cars. This plant consisted of two 30-inch-square insulated ducts leading from an ammonia coil room capable of supplying from 16 to 20 tons of refrigeration in 24 hours. With a motor and fan the cold air was forced in either direction through the car and back to the coil room. The temperature of the air was varied from 20° F. when first entering the car to higher temperatures. It was forced through the car at different velocities and in volume varying from 4,500 to 6,000 cubic feet a minute. This plant is shown in Plate IX, figure 2. It is hoped to present a report on this plant from the engineering point of view and a discussion of the cold storage of oranges in a future bulletin of the Bureau of Plant Industry on "The Cooling of Fruit for Shipment."

In addition to the work at the plant at Los Angeles, Cal., extensive shipping experiments were conducted by the Bureau of Plant Industry in 1907 with fruit cooled in cold-storage plants in different parts of the State. A few cars were cooled also at the 3-ton plant at Arlington, Cal., by different parties, and about 300 cars of fruit were cooled commercially in different cold-storage warehouses, the fruit having been stored primarily on account of a shortage in cars.

During the summer of 1907 an experimental precooling plant was erected by interests connected with the Santa Fe Railroad at San

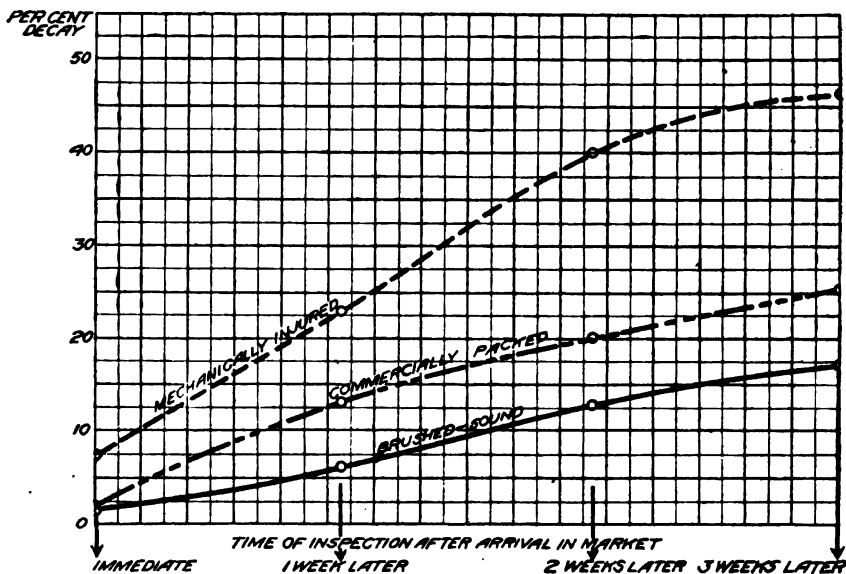


FIG. 15.—Diagram illustrating the percentage of decay upon arrival in market and for three weeks thereafter of oranges handled roughly, shipped under ice, 1907.

Bernardino, Cal., and another plant at Roseville, Cal., by interests connected with the Southern Pacific Company.

THE KEEPING QUALITY OF ORANGES AFTER ARRIVAL IN MARKET.

During the season of 1907 data have been secured on the keeping quality of oranges after arrival in market, the fruit having been prepared for shipment in different ways in California. The shipments included apparently sound brushed and washed fruit, commercially packed fruit, and mechanically injured fruit. Shipments were forwarded under ventilation, under ice, and after precooling, but not under conditions that make a comparison of the three methods feasible.

On arrival in New York the fruit was held for different lengths of time in a storeroom of a wholesale fruit merchant, and the decay was determined at the end of each succeeding week in storage. Shipments of this type arrived during April, May, and June.

One series of tests included the regular commercial shipments of a large corporation whose fruit is handled in the groves and packing houses with extreme care. The fruit is the same as that represented by the results discussed on page 45. All of it was forwarded

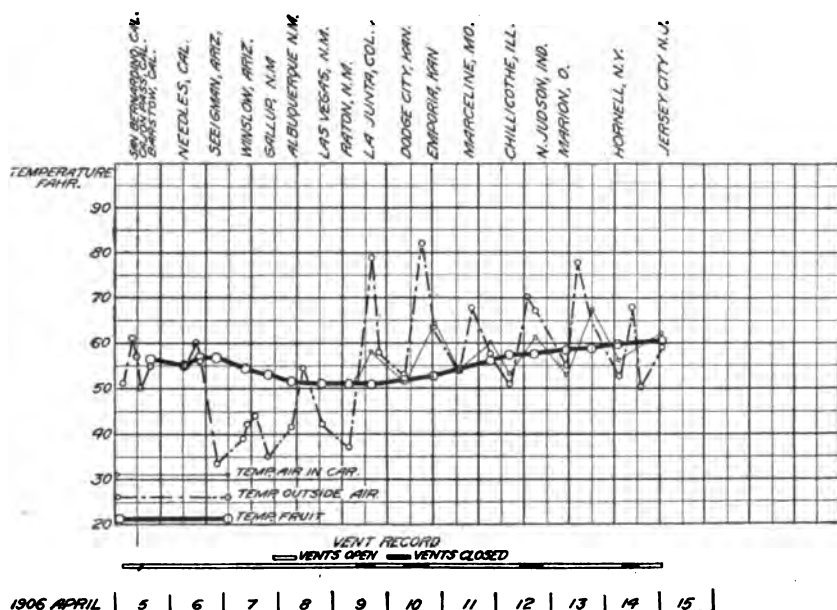


Fig. 10.—Diagram showing the temperature record of a carload of oranges shipped under regulated ventilation, April, 1906.

under ventilation. The decay developed at different lengths of time after arrival in New York is shown in the following table:

TABLE VIII.—Percentage of decay in carefully handled oranges, shipped under ventilation, after arrival in New York, 1907.

Character of oranges shipped.	Time of inspection.			
	On arrival.	After 1 week.	After 2 weeks.	After 3 weeks.
Commercially handled fruit.....	Per cent. 2.4	Per cent. 5.0	Per cent. 9.1	Per cent. 11.1

There was also forwarded from this house in June, after pre-cooling, some carefully selected fruit, commercially packed fruit, and mechanically injured fruit. The decay in the different lots at

different lengths of time after arrival in New York is shown in the following table, and also in figure 14 (p. 56) :

TABLE IX.—Percentage of decay in precooled oranges handled carefully, after arrival in New York, 1907.

Character of oranges shipped.	Time of inspection.		
	On arrival.	After 1 week.	After 2 weeks.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Apparently sound fruit.....	0.4	2.8	9.7
Commercially handled fruit.....	1.2	3.6	9.7
Mechanically injured fruit.....	5.2	16.7	25.4

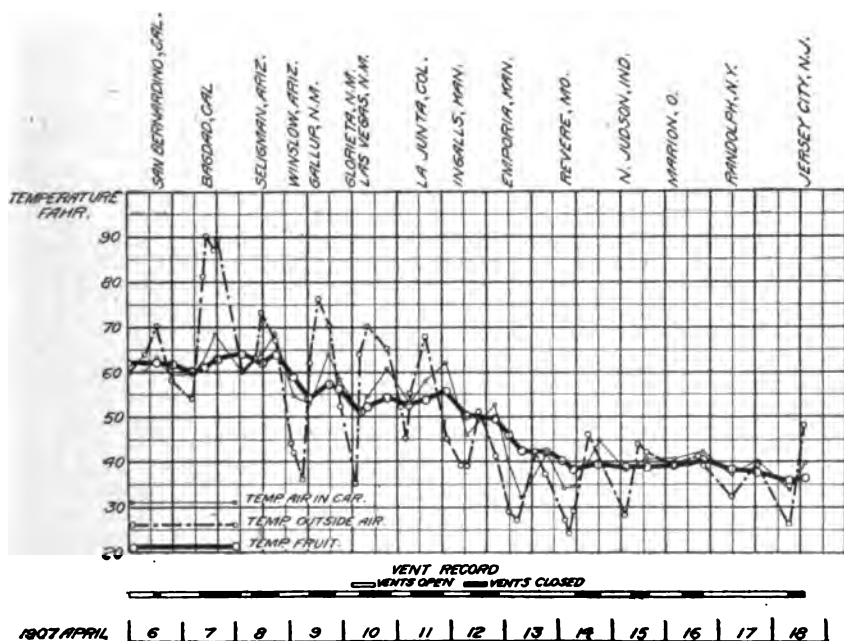


FIG. 17.—Diagram showing the temperature record of a carload of oranges shipped under regulated ventilation, April, 1907.

These data are comparable with the decay under ventilation so far as the commercially packed fruit is concerned. There was a little less decay in the precooled than in the ventilated fruit on arrival, and the development after arrival was slightly less. The difference shown is so slight as to be of no practical value except to indicate that precooled fruit that is reasonably sound is not more likely to decay after arrival in market than equally sound ventilated fruit. The increase was slightly less in the apparently sound fruit and greatest in the injured fruit.

The following table shows the amount of decay in fruit from houses where the oranges handled were picked and packed rather roughly, the fruit arriving during May and June under ice. The data are shown also in figure 15 (p. 57).

TABLE X.—Percentage of decay in oranges handled roughly, shipped under ice, after arrival in New York, 1907.

Character of oranges shipped.	Time of inspection.			
	On arrival.	After 1 week.	After 2 weeks.	After 3 weeks.
Apparently sound fruit.....	Per cent. 1.4	Per cent. 6.1	Per cent. 12.7	Per cent. 17.0
Commercially packed fruit.....	1.9	13.0	20.7	25.3
Mechanically injured fruit.....	7.4	22.9	39.9	46.1

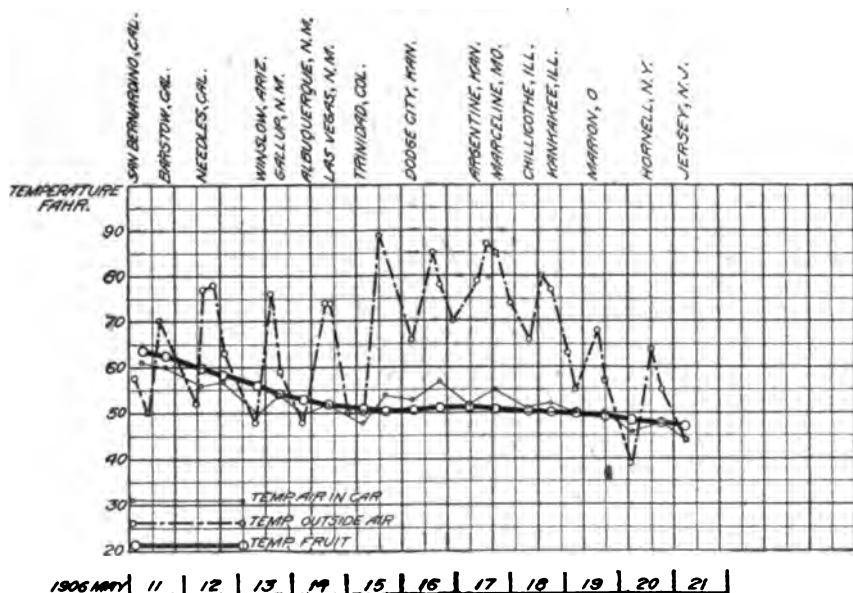


FIG. 18.—Diagram showing the temperature record of a carload of oranges shipped under regular icing, May, 1906.

This table shows the least development of decay in the apparently sound oranges and the greatest development in the mechanically injured fruit. The increase in decay in the commercially packed fruit, which contains more or less injured fruit, is greater than the decay in the sound fruit from which the oranges showing visible mechanical injuries have been eliminated.

The data on the keeping quality of the fruit in New York, taken as a whole, show clearly that sound fruit to start with is the basis for good keeping quality after arrival in market, as well as the basis

for soundness on arrival; that carefully handled sound fruit keeps as well when shipped under precooling as ventilated fruit, but that unsound fruit having the decay retarded during shipment either by precooling or by icing decays badly when exposed to a warm atmosphere. The general impression that iced fruit decays more quickly than ventilated fruit when exposed to warm air is usually true so far as oranges that are mechanically injured are concerned, as the injured fruit is more likely to develop decay in transit under ventilation, but it is not well founded when applied to sound fruit.

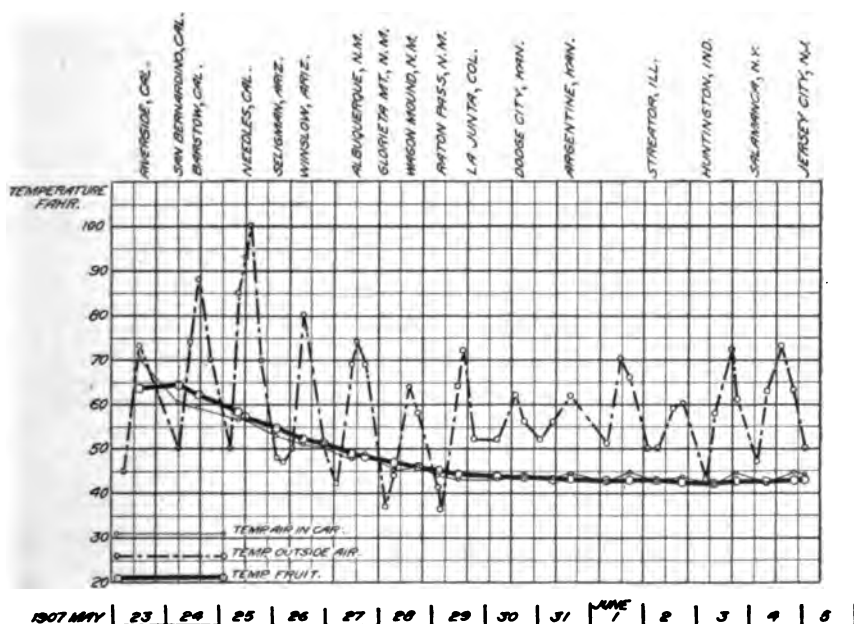


FIG. 10.—Diagram showing the average temperature record of two carloads of oranges shipped under regular icing, May, 1907.

THE INVESTIGATION OF THE TEMPERATURE OF ORANGES WHILE IN TRANSIT.

During the spring of 1906 and that of 1907 an investigation was made of the changes that occur in the temperature of the fruit, the air in the car, and the outside air during the movement of cars of fruit across the continent under ventilation, icing, and with fruit cooled before shipment and forwarded under several conditions of icing. The records were taken by Mr. G. W. Hosford and Mr. H. M. White, who made several transcontinental trips with train loads of oranges, reading the thermometers several times a day by entering the cars at the icing stations and other stopping points.

This investigation was made possible through the cooperation of the railroads in allowing the icing in transit, the reading of the thermometers, and other matters connected with the investigation to be done by, or under the direction of, the representatives of the Bureau of Plant Industry. The records appearing in this discussion were made in cars forwarded over the Santa Fe route.

From three to six thermometers were placed in each car, one to determine the temperature of the air just above the boxes of fruit, the others to determine the temperature of the fruit itself. These latter were inserted in oranges in the packed boxes. With the exception of a few cases noted, the fruit temperatures were taken in the upper half of boxes in the upper tier midway between the door and the end of the car, one thermometer being placed in an orange next to the outside of the box, and another in an orange in the inside or center of the box. For this purpose special long mercurial ther-

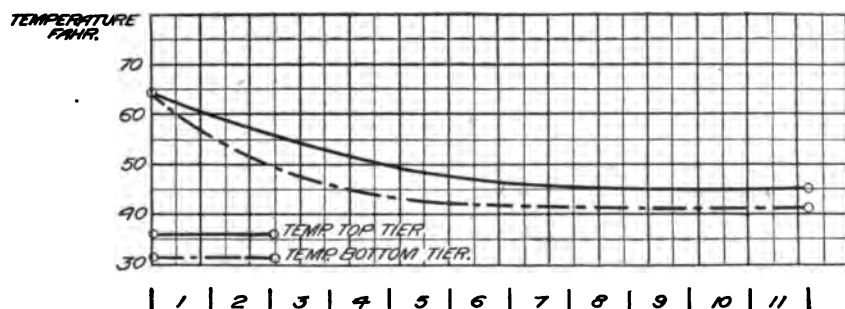


FIG. 20.—Diagram showing the temperature change of the oranges in the top and bottom tiers of boxes in a car shipped under regular icing.

mometers were used which could be read without being removed from the orange. The fruit temperature shown in the following diagrams is the average of the inside and outside fruit temperatures. In some cars a thermometer was placed in the lower half of a box in the lower tier in front of the door. All of the records were made in standard 40-foot refrigerator cars loaded with 384 boxes, except as noted. The diagrams that follow cover two representative records under each method of shipment.

TEMPERATURE RECORDS IN VENTILATED CARS.

The accompanying chart, figure 16, shows the temperature record of a car shipped in April, 1906. The record of the temperature of the air of the car was not begun until the train reached the vicinity of Raton, N. Mex. This car was forwarded under regulated ventilation; that is, the ventilators, or ice plugs, in each end of the car were sup-

posed to be closed whenever the outside air was warmer than the fruit and were opened when the outside air was colder. The regulation in this respect differs from the standard ventilation in practice, which usually provides, so far as the temperature is concerned, that the ventilators shall be closed whenever the outside temperature falls below 32° F., but does not provide against the rise in temperature in the car when the outside air is above the temperature of the fruit. The regulation of the ventilators in this car was not entirely accurate, as shown in the vent record at the bottom of the chart. The fruit temperature is an average of the temperature in the inside of a box

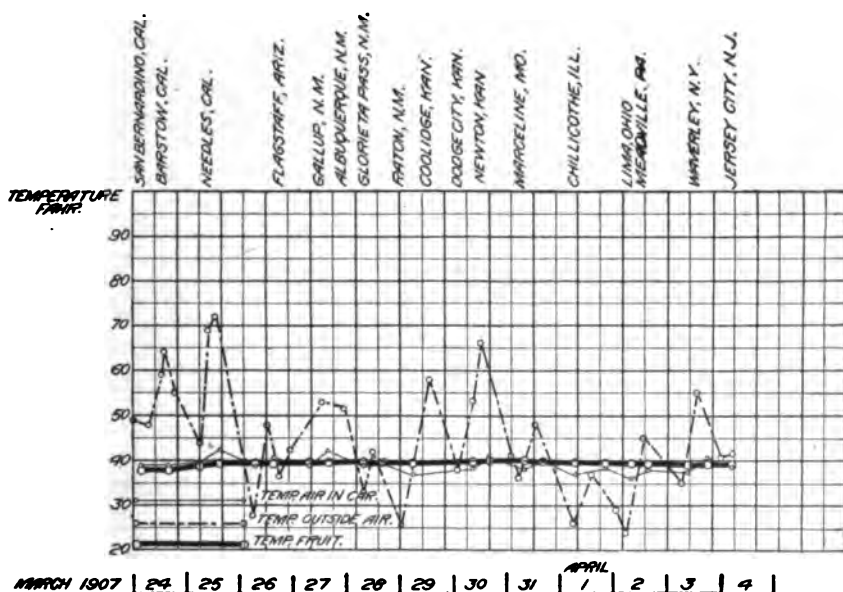


FIG. 21.—Diagram showing the temperature record of a standard carload of 384 boxes of oranges, precooled and shipped under regular icing, March and April, 1907.

in the top tier at the end of the car and the temperature in the fruit in a similar position in the center of the car.

It will be seen that the temperature of the air of the car lags behind the temperature of the outside air, while the lag in the fruit temperature is much greater than that of the air of the car. The fruit temperature changes slowly even when extreme differences occur outside.

The chart shown as figure 17, page 59, presents the temperature record of a car of oranges shipped under regulated ventilation in April, 1907, with somewhat different weather conditions from those occurring on the former trip.

The results of the experiments with this car demonstrate the fact that the temperature of the fruit changes much more slowly than the temperature of the outside air. It is worth noting that several times during the trip the temperature of the outside air fell below 32° F. and at one time dropped to 24° F. Notwithstanding the fact that the vents were open at the time, the temperature of the fruit, while falling steadily, did not reach a point where there was danger of freezing. Two days of this comparatively low temperature, April 13 and 14, 1907, only reduced the fruit from 50° to 38° F.

The substance of these records shows that the temperature of a carload of oranges under ventilation changes slowly in comparison

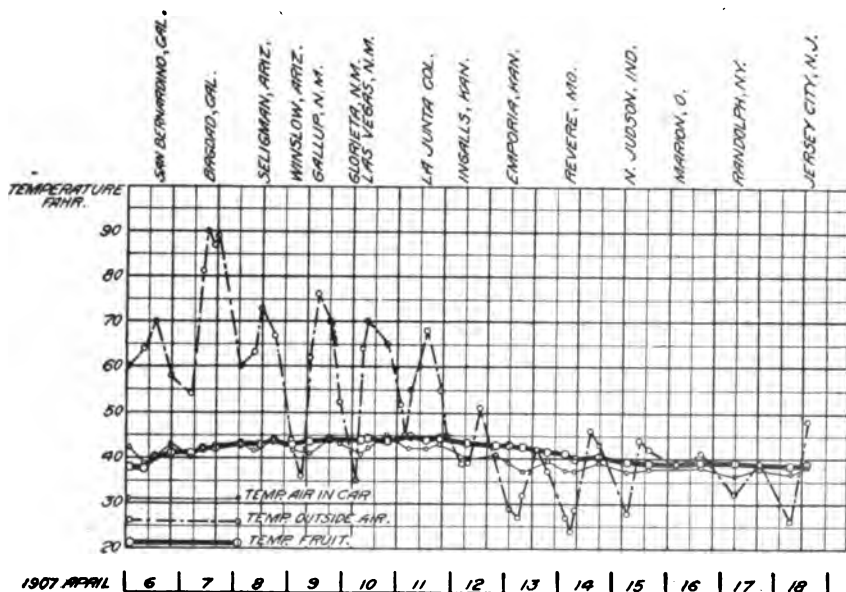


FIG. 22.—Diagram showing the temperature record of a carload consisting of 549 boxes of oranges, precooled and shipped under regular icing, April, 1907.

with the temperature of the outside air; that the temperature outside may often fall to the freezing point or below without injury to the fruit, provided the fruit temperature is somewhat above that point at the time; that the danger of freezing depends on the persistence of and the degree of the low temperature without or the nearness of the fruit to it when the car enters a freezing temperature; and that the temperature of the fruit in transit would be more uniform if protection was made against warm temperatures as well as against cold in the handling of the ventilators. This suggests the need of an organized messenger service for the regulation of ventilated fruit cars, the ventilation to protect the fruit against both excessive cold and heat.

TEMPERATURE RECORDS IN ICED CARS.

The chart shown as figure 18, page 60, shows the record of a carload of oranges shipped under ice in May, 1906. The fruit started at 63° F., which is comparatively cool, and the outside air was also comparatively cool until the train reached western Kansas, after which it averaged considerably higher, except at the end of the trip. The temperature of the fruit was 63° F. in starting and reached 50° F. on the fifth day, but did not fall much lower, while the outside temperature remained high.

The record shown in figure 19 (p. 61) represents the average temperature of two cars shipped in the same train under ice in May, 1907. Each car showed practically the same temperature throughout the trip. The temperature of the fruit is the average of five different temperatures in each car. Two of them were taken in the usual

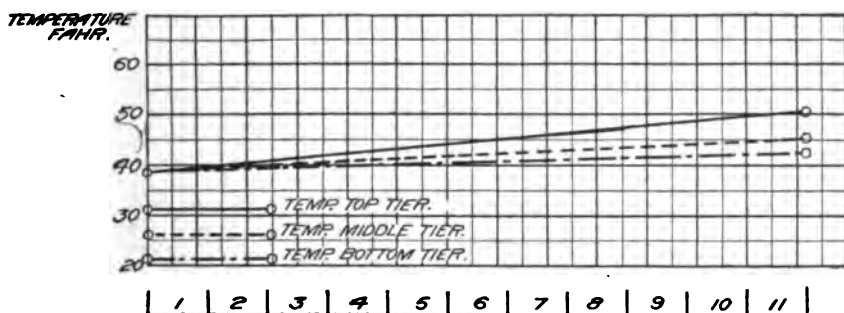


FIG. 23.—Diagram showing the temperature changes in the fruit in the bottom, middle, and top tiers in a carload of 540 boxes of oranges, precooled and shipped under initial icing only.

place, halfway between the door and end of the car, two were taken in the top tier in the middle of the car and represent the average temperature of the inside and outside fruit, and the fifth in the center of the box in the lower half of the lower tier in front of the door. The fruit started at 64° F., reached 50° F. on the fourth day, and arrived in Jersey City at 43° F.

The chart shown as figure 20, page 62, shows the average cooling of the oranges in the top and bottom tiers of boxes in the cars shipped under ice in 1907. The temperature was taken in the upper half of the boxes in the top tier and the lower half of the boxes in the bottom tier. The bottom tier cooled faster than the top for several days, the maximum difference reaching 7 to 8 degrees on the third and fourth days of the trip. Gradually the extreme difference between the tiers disappeared, the temperatures of the two tiers from the seventh day remaining about 4 degrees apart.

The records show, in substance, that under icing the fruit is not reduced to a low temperature until a considerable part of the trans-continental trip has been covered, and that the fall in temperature in the top tier lags behind the bottom tier throughout the trip. These records indicate the reason why the fruit sometimes decays excessively when shipped under ice and why the top tiers of fruit, especially in cars of deciduous fruit, reach the market in an overripe and decaying condition. Many oranges leave California at a temperature of 80° F. or higher. The decay starts during the early part of the trip under the icing method, before the fruit is cooled.

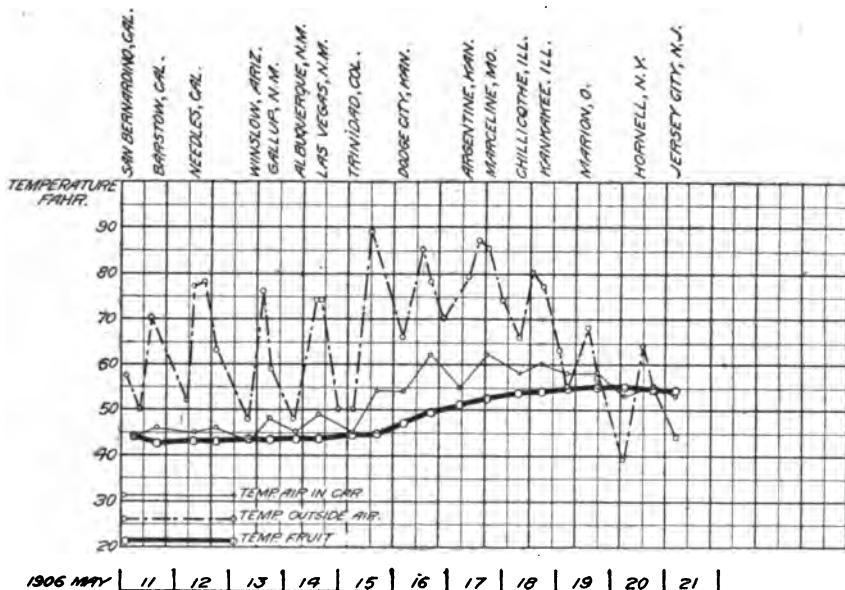


FIG. 24.—Diagram showing the temperature record of a carload of oranges, precooled and shipped under initial icing only, May, 1906.

TEMPERATURE RECORDS OF FRUIT COOLED BEFORE LOADING AND ICED REGULARLY IN TRANSIT.

The chart shown as figure 21 (p. 63) is a record of the temperature of a carload of oranges of 384 boxes placed in cold storage before loading and which left California in March, 1907, at a temperature of 38° F. The car was iced before the fruit was loaded and was reiced in transit at the regular icing stations. The temperature of the fruit remained practically constant throughout the trip, the air of the car changing slightly with the outside air.

The accompanying chart, figure 22 (p. 64), is a record of the temperature of a carload of 549 boxes of oranges placed in cold storage before loading and which left California in April, 1907, at a temperature of 38° F. The car was iced before the fruit was loaded and was

reiced regularly in transit. All of the thermometers in this car were placed near the door. The fruit temperature is an average of the fruit next to the outside of a box in the third or top tier and the fruit in the center of the lower half of a box in the bottom tier. The temperature of the fruit rose to 45° F. during the first half of the trip and probably would have risen higher if the outside temperature had not been colder during the latter half of the trip.

The accompanying chart, figure 23 (p. 65), illustrates the average temperature of the fruit in the different tiers of a 3-tier car loaded with 549 boxes. The fruit was loaded into the car at a temperature of 38° F. Upon arrival in Jersey City it was found that the temperature

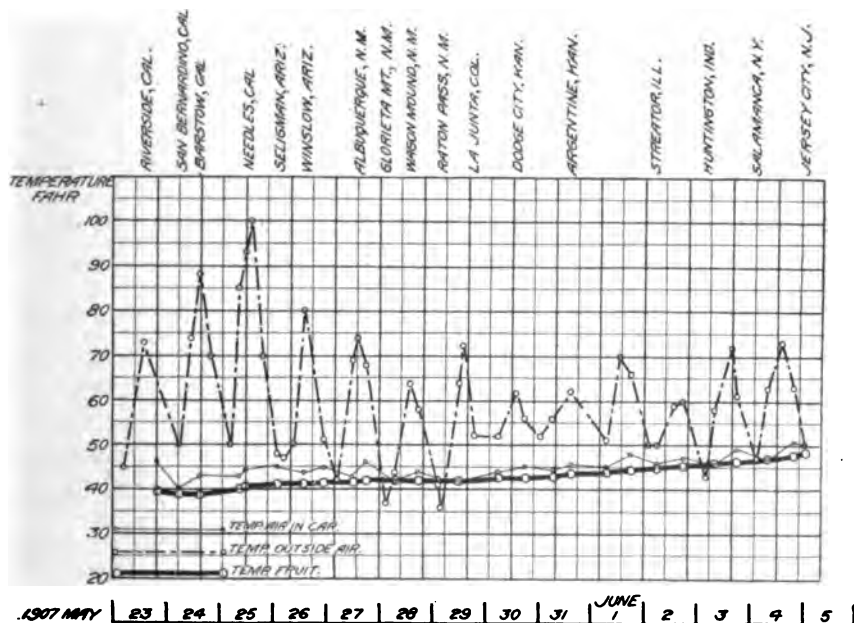


FIG. 25.—Diagram showing the temperature record of a carload of oranges, precooled and shipped under initial icing only, May and June, 1907.

on the top tier was 51°, the middle tier 48°, and the bottom tier 43° F. This is the largest difference that has been found in any of the 3-tier precooled cars under observation. The record is the result of reading the temperature of the fruit at the beginning and end of the trip and is not a continuous record from day to day.

TEMPERATURE RECORDS OF FRUIT COOLED BEFORE LOADING AND ICED IN CALIFORNIA ONLY.

The chart shown as figure 24 is a record of a carload of oranges placed in cold storage before loading and which left California in May, 1906, at a temperature of 42° F. The car was iced before loading and was reiced at San Bernardino before leaving California. It

was not reiced during the rest of the trip. It arrived in Jersey City with about 700 pounds of ice in the two bunkers. During the first half of the trip the weather was reasonably warm, but the temperature of the fruit remained fairly constant. During the latter half, through Kansas and as far as Illinois, the outside temperature was higher. The temperature of the car then began to rise, the temperature of the fruit rising also from 45° to 55° F., but lagging considerably behind, with a tendency to recede during the cooler weather at the end of the trip. In this connection the record of the car under ice shown in figure 18, made in the same train, should be noted. In this car the fruit started at a temperature of 63° and did not drop

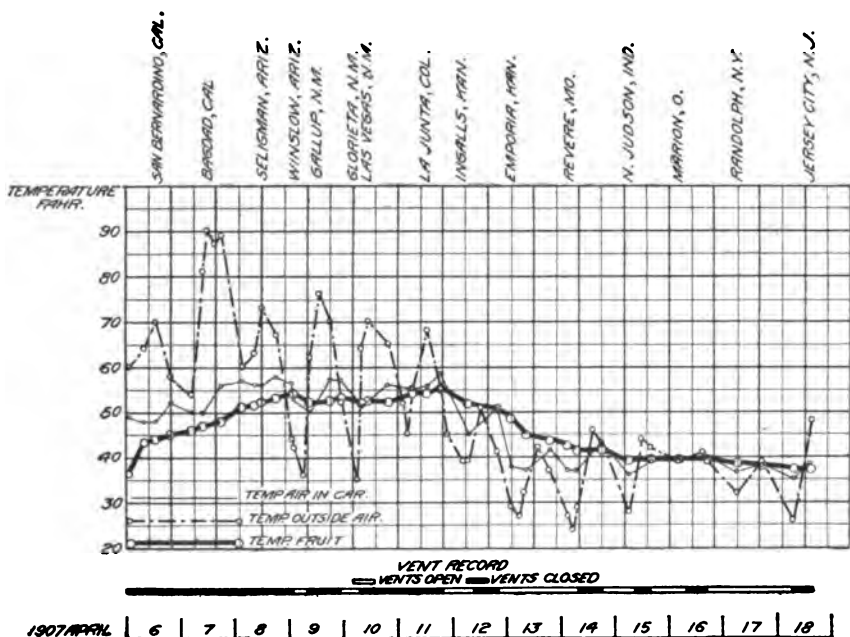


FIG. 20.—Diagram showing the temperature record of a carload of oranges, precooled and shipped without icing under regulated ventilation, April, 1907.

below 50° F. during the warm weather. In the fruit precooled and iced in California only it started at 42° and rose during the latter half of the trip as high as 55° F. The condition of temperature in the precooled car is preferable so far as the decay of the fruit is concerned.

The chart shown as figure 25 is a record of a carload of oranges of 416 boxes placed in cold storage before loading and which left California in May, 1907, at a temperature of 39° F. This car was iced before loading and was reiced at San Bernardino before leaving California, but not during the rest of the trip. The car was loaded 7 rows of boxes wide on the bottom tier and 6 rows wide on the top

tier. It arrived in Jersey City with 3,000 pounds of ice in the two bunkers. The temperature of the fruit rose gradually from 39° to 48° F. In this connection the record of the iced car shown in figure 19, which was in the same train, should be noted. The lower temperature during the latter half of the trip reduced the temperature of the fruit to a lower degree than the fruit in the iced car shown in figure 18, and at the same time it prevented as great a rise in the cold fruit as occurred in the car shown in figure 24. It also saved the ice as compared with the car shown in figure 24.

The chart shown as figure 26 shows the record of a carload of oranges placed in cold storage which left California in April, 1907, at a temperature of 37° F. The car was not iced either before or after loading. It was forwarded with the ice plugs inserted. The temperature outside was warm and the temperature of the fruit rose rapidly. After the train reached Winslow, Ariz., the temperature of the air at night began to fall below the temperature of the fruit, and from that point on the car was run under regulated ventilation. The record indicates that it is not safe, so far as the temperature of the fruit is concerned, to load precooled fruit in warm weather in a hot car and to forward it without ice.

SUMMARY OF PRECOOLING RECORDS.

The substance of the records under precooling demonstrates that the temperature remains fairly constant in fruit that has been cooled and is forwarded in a car iced before loading and iced regularly in transit; that the temperature of fruit cooled to about 40° F., forwarded in a car iced before loading, and reiced at San Bernardino, Cal., only, remains fairly constant for at least half of the transcontinental trip, when the temperature may begin to rise if the weather is warm; that it may be safe to ship oranges cooled to about 40° F. to points in the western half of the United States with California icing only, provided the time in transit is normal; that the fruit may be shipped across the continent in reasonably cool weather when handled under the preceding conditions; that the need of reicing in transit would probably have to be governed by the quantity of ice remaining in the bunkers at any point and not by a predetermined fixed rule, and that it is not safe to load cold fruit in a warm car and forward it without icing.

SUMMARY.

The citrus-fruit crop of California amounts to nearly 30,000 cars annually, of which the orange comprises from 85 to 90 per cent. The fruit is grown under intensive culture, and the handling, shipping, and marketing of the crop have resulted in the development of complex and highly specialized business practices.

The losses from decay in the orange during transportation formerly amounted to \$750,000 to \$1,500,000 annually. The decay is caused by a blue-mold fungus which enters the orange through mechanical abrasions in the skin. The most common forms of mechanical injury are those caused by the clippers in cutting the fruit from the tree, stem punctures, and scratches and bruises produced in the packing houses. Most of these injuries are invisible to the inexperienced eye. There has been a wide variation in the amount of injury in the fruit of different pickers, growers, and packing houses, the variation commonly running from 1 to 50 per cent. A good deal of the trouble has been related to methods of business which place a premium on the amount rather than the quality of the work done by the picker, the grower, or the packing house.

By holding in many packing houses in California fruit that has been picked at different periods of the season, in different sections of the citrus belt, and that has been handled in different ways, it has been shown that the fruit that is handled the least develops the least decay, while the fruit that shows the greatest amount of injury develops the most decay. From the standpoint of the packing house, the least decay develops in sound unbrushed fruit. Brushing increases it, washing increases it still more, and any treatment that cuts or tears the skin is followed by the greatest amount of decay.

There appears to be little difference in the amount of decay in oranges grown in different sections that have been handled in a similar manner, or in oranges picked from the same grove with equal care at different periods of the season, at least from January to May.

The "curing" of the orange for a few days before packing wilts the skin and in the early part of the season makes it pliable to handle. The curing is probably not harmful to uninjured fruit, but under the conditions of commercial handling in California the blue mold begins to develop in the injured oranges during the curing period, but does not develop far enough to be seen by the graders except in fruit that has been injured severely.

If the fruit is packed promptly after picking and is shipped at once in a cool temperature the decay may not develop in transit. The most progressive shippers now pack the fruit promptly after picking.

It is unnecessary to brush so large a proportion of the oranges as has been customary in the past, and the washing can be avoided by treating the groves properly for scale. The packing houses all through the citrus belt are being modified in the direction of more simple machinery.

The shipping experiments of the Bureau of Plant Industry during the last three years have included 297 shipments of fruit to New

York. The shipments have included oranges handled in different ways before packing. The fruit has been shipped at different lengths of time after packing, and it has been forwarded under ventilation, icing, and precooling followed by different conditions of icing.

From the standpoint of the handling of the fruit the least decay has developed under all methods of shipment in the sound, carefully handled oranges, and the greatest amount has developed in those that were mechanically injured. From the standpoint of the promptness of shipment after packing the least decay has developed in the oranges shipped immediately after packing, and the decay has increased in proportion as the time between packing and shipment has lengthened. From the standpoint of the method of shipment the least decay developed in the precooled fruit that was loaded in the cars in cold condition.

The cooling of the fruit to a temperature of about 40° F. before shipment appears to save ice in transit, as the cars do not require reicing as often as they do when forwarded under regular icing. It appears also to increase the freight-carrying capacity of a car by making it possible to load the boxes more closely than is safe under regular icing. From the standpoint of decay, precooling the fruit is not essential, as the decay can be avoided by handling the fruit carefully. Precooling retards decay temporarily, but does not remove the cause. It should supplement rather than take the place of careful handling.

In the market holding tests the fruit that has not been mechanically injured keeps the longest, while the greatest loss occurs in oranges that have been thus injured.

The temperature of the fruit changes slowly in transit. In ventilated cars there may be extreme changes in the outside air, and if the extremes do not persist long the changes in the temperature of the fruit are relatively slow. In iced cars the temperature falls relatively fast during the first few days, but a train may cover one-third of the trip across the continent before the temperature of the fruit reaches 50° F. The decay develops rapidly during the early part of the trip, while the fruit is warm. In a car in which the fruit is cooled to 40° F. or lower before shipment the temperature remains nearly constant if the car is reiced regularly in transit. In cool weather it remains fairly constant without additional icing after the car leaves California. In warm weather the reicing during the first half of the trip can be avoided, but the car may need reicing during the latter half of the trip.

PLATES.

123

73

DESCRIPTION OF PLATES.

PLATE I. *Frontispiece.* Washington Navel oranges, showing blue-mold decay.

The upper figure shows the stem cut short, with an injury in the fruit made by the clippers. The decay started at this injury. The lower figure shows an orange with a long stem and a puncture made by such a stem. The decay is developing around the injury. (Fruit considerably reduced in size.)

PLATE II. Washington Navel orange trees. Fig. 1.—One of the Washington Navel orange trees sent to California by the Department of Agriculture in 1873. Fig. 2.—A Washington Navel orange tree three years after planting.

PLATE III. California orange groves and a packing house. Fig. 1.—A typical view of bearing orange groves. The foreground shows contour planting to facilitate irrigation. Fig. 2.—Interior view of an orange packing house in southern California, with an old-style overhead sizing machine and gravity chutes leading to the bins. This type of house contains too much complicated machinery to insure careful handling of the fruit.

PLATE IV. Orange brushing machines. Fig. 1.—A common type of brushing machine with a hopper. Fig. 2.—A belt-carrying device placed over the brush to deliver the fruit from the hopper to the elevator. This device can be removed when it is desired to brush the fruit.

PLATE V. Machinery in use in an orange packing house in southern California. Fig. 1.—An automatic weighing machine in operation. Fig. 2.—One type of sizing machine in operation. The narrow carrying belts on either side are used to return to the graders poor fruit found in the bins.

PLATE VI. An interior view of a desirable type of orange packing house. This is a type of house without overhead or complicated machinery. The grading belt in the background is shown in detail in text figure 2. The drop from the grading belt to the sizers is necessary to allow room for the weighing machines. (From a photograph furnished by the manager of the packing house.)

PLATE VII. The washing of citrus fruits. Fig. 1.—A lemon washing machine in operation. The fruit is emptied into the tank of water at the right of the picture. It is then cleaned between revolving brushes in the circular tank and delivered on the canvas table at the left, where it is graded according to color. Similar machines are used in washing oranges. Fig. 2.—Washed oranges on drying racks.

PLATE VIII. Valencia oranges. The upper specimen was taken from a grove that had been thoroughly fumigated for the black scale. The lower specimen is from a grove that had not been fumigated for the black scale. The sooty-mold fungus on the upper part of the fruit grows in the honeydew exuded by the scale. Such fruit has to be washed. (Fruit considerably reduced in size.)

PLATE IX. The cooling of oranges in cars before shipment. Fig. 1.—The experimental plant used in 1905. Fig. 2.—The experimental plant erected and used in 1907.



FIG. 1.—A TREE SENT TO CALIFORNIA BY THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE IN 1873.



FIG. 2.—A TREE THREE YEARS AFTER PLANTING.

WASHINGTON NAVEL ORANGE TREES.



FIG. 1.—A TYPICAL VIEW OF BEARING ORANGE GROVES.



FIG. 2.—INTERIOR VIEW OF AN ORANGE PACKING HOUSE WITH AN OVERHEAD SIZING MACHINE.

CALIFORNIA ORANGE GROVES AND A PACKING HOUSE.



FIG. 1.—A COMMON TYPE OF BRUSHING MACHINE, WITH A HOPPER.



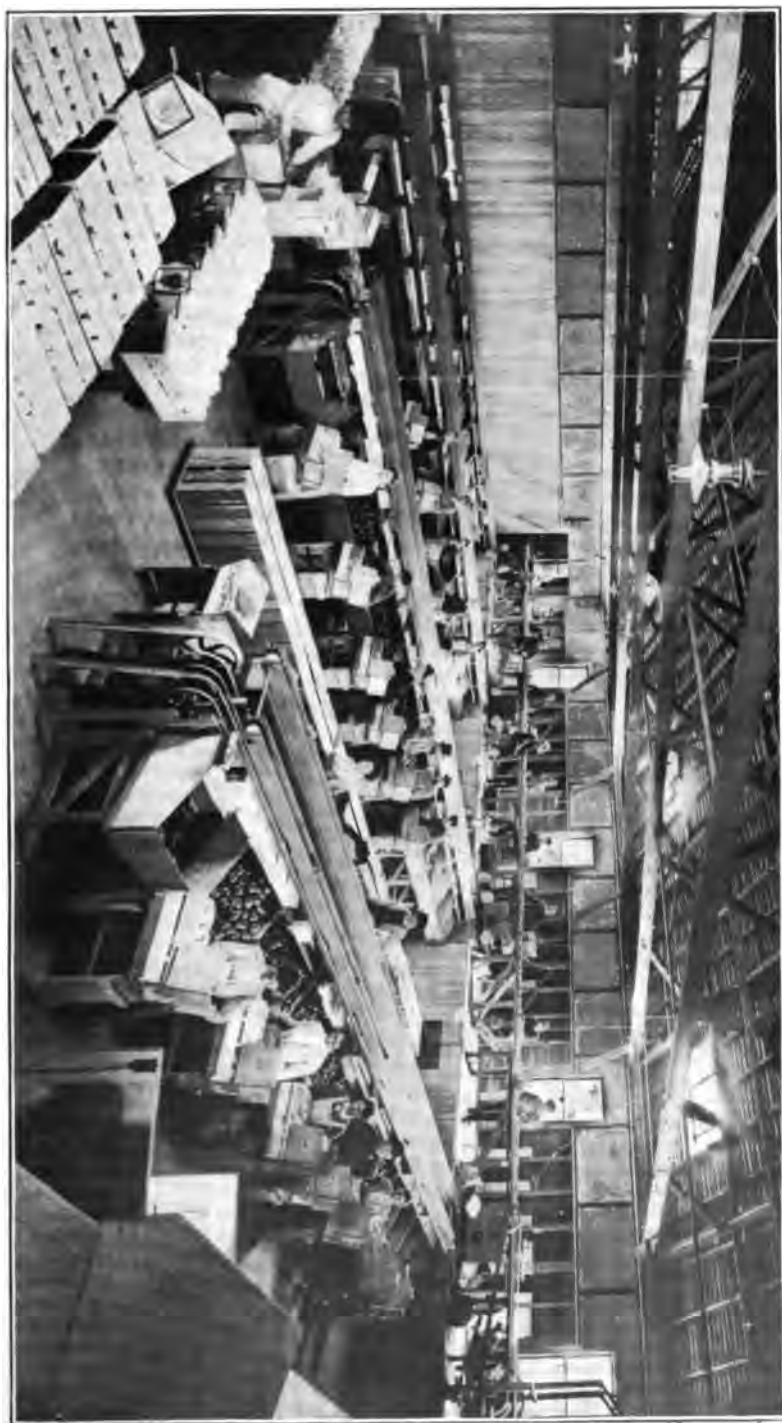
FIG. 2.—A BELT-CARRYING DEVICE OVER A BRUSHING MACHINE.
ORANGE BRUSHING MACHINES.



FIG. 1.—AN AUTOMATIC WEIGHING MACHINE.



FIG. 2.—A TYPE OF SIZING MACHINE.
ORANGE PACKING-HOUSE MACHINERY.



AN INTERIOR VIEW OF A DESIRABLE TYPE OF ORANGE PACKING HOUSE.



FIG. 1.—A LEMON WASHING MACHINE IN OPERATION.



FIG. 2.—WASHED ORANGES ON DRYING RACKS.
THE WASHING OF CITRUS FRUITS.



E. J. Schults

VALENCIA ORANGES.

Lower specimen affected with sooty-mold fungus.

(Specimens considerably reduced in size.)



FIG. 1.—THE EXPERIMENTAL PLANT USED IN 1905.



FIG. 2.—THE EXPERIMENTAL PLANT USED IN 1907.
THE COOLING OF ORANGES IN CARS BEFORE SHIPMENT.

INDEX.

	Page
Auction, eastern markets, percentage of oranges sold.....	12-13
Bahia orange, introduction into California, etc.....	9
name	10
Black scale, injury to orange	38
Blooming, relation to decay of fruit.....	35
Blue mold fungus, cause of decay in oranges.....	70
of citrus fruits, description and investigations	21-23
Brushes, orange, types.....	37
Brushing of oranges, cause of decay.....	37-38
decay of fruit in packing houses	31-33
necessity, degree	70
value questionable	37-38
California, citrus-fruit crop	69-71
industry, general description.....	9-20
Fruit Growers' Exchange, cooperative organization, methods	13
northern, early orange crop, causes.....	11
Riverside, navel orange industry, beginning, importance, etc	9-10
southern, decay of oranges of different sections.....	33-34
regions favorable for citrus-fruit growing	11
Car, capacity, increase by precooling fruit	54
refrigerator, for shipping oranges, requirements	18-19
standard, for shipping oranges, capacity, weight, etc.....	19
Cars, loading, methods.....	19-20
Citrus-fruit belt, cultural conditions	11-12
crop, California, annual, size, importance, etc	69-71
methods of handling and marketing.....	12-15
groves, size	12
industry, California, development	11
extent	10-11
general description	9-20
Clippers, cuts by, cause of decay	23-30
for picking citrus fruits, types	15
Cold storage. <i>See</i> Storage, cold.	
Cooling of fruit before shipment. <i>See</i> Precooling.	
plant, experimental, Bureau of Plant Industry, description.....	56
Cooperation, associations, methods.....	13
Crops, cover, for citrus orchards.....	11
Culls grade of oranges, definition	18
Curing before packing, benefits questionable	36-37
oranges, development of blue mold.....	70
Decay in oranges in different periods of the season	34-36
sections.....	32-34
transit	42-52
experiments, general description	42-50
stored in packing houses, experiments	30-32

	Page.
Decay of citrus fruits, investigation of causes	20-30
methods of prevention	45-46
Discounts on cars for off sizes	18
Eastern markets, percentage of citrus fruits sold at auction	12-13
Epidermis, orange, abrasion, cause of decay	22
Fungi, cause of decay in oranges, description, etc.	21-22, 70
effect of cold on growth on orange	22-23
Freight rates, carload of oranges, to New York and Chicago	20
cars of oranges	19-20
Fumigation of orange groves, preventive of mold	39
result of neglect	48
Grading of citrus fruits, grades defined	17-18
Grape-fruit in California	10
Groves, fumigation, necessity for prevention of sooty mold	39
size	12
Growers, orange, cooperation in handling and marketing crops	12-14
interest in careful picking	25-26
work in marketing crop	14
Handling oranges, commendable methods	47-49
injury an economic problem	27-28
weakness of present method	29
Harvest, citrus fruits, methods	14
time, lemon crop	12
orange crop, various regions	12
History of development of practice of precooling oranges	55-57
Honeydew, infestation of oranges	38
Hopper, packing house, suggestions	41
Ice, shipments of oranges, experiments	46-49
Icing of cars, saving of ice by precooling fruit	54
refrigerator cars	20
Introduction to bulletin	9
Irrigation, citrus-fruit belt	11
growing, intensive system, period	11
Keeping quality of oranges after arrival in market	57-61, 71
Labor, marketing citrus fruit, methods	14
Lemon crop, time of harvest	12
industry, California, extent	10
Machinery, packing house	16-17
Marketing citrus-fruit crops, methods	12-15
cooperation as factor in careless handling	29
oranges, injuries in handling, cause of decay	23
keeping quality after arrival at destination	57-61
percentage of injury in handling	24
reduction of cost of handling	28-29
Markets, eastern, percentage of citrus fruit sold at auction	12-13
outside of California, percentage shipped	10
Methods, commendable, of handling oranges	47-49
weakness in present system	29
Mold, blue, citrus fruits, description and investigations	21-23
fungus causing decay	70
Navel orange, description, characteristics, etc.	10
introduction into California, etc.	9-10
Oil sprays for black scale, note	38

	Page.
Orange cars, capacity, etc	18
crop, handling, reduction in cost not always justifiable.....	28-29
weakness in present method.....	29
northern California, conditions favorable to early crop	11
time of harvest, various regions	12
industry, California, extent.....	10
navel, California crop, 1906-7, value	10
regions, California	11
trees, introduced navel, transplanted at Riverside, Cal.	10
Oranges, careless handling	40
curing before packing	36-37
decay, causes.....	20-30
experiments with different methods of handling	30-42
in transit	42-52
differences in decay for several sections	32-34
handling, experiments with different methods.....	30-42
injuries in handling, cause of decay	23
mechanical.....	23-30
keeping quality after arrival in market	57-61
loss from decay in transportation, annual, causes, etc.....	70
losses in marketing in California	9
methods of insuring uniformity	29-30
percentage of injury in handling	24
stored in packing houses, decay, experiments	30-32
temperature while in transit, investigation	61-69
varieties grown in California, value	10
Orchards, citrus-fruit, cover crop	11
Packer, orange, day's work	17
Packers, interest in careful picking	25-26
Packing citrus fruits	16-18
benefits from prior curing questionable.....	36
care in placing and pressing.....	36
house equipment and conditions	40-42
features to be avoided	40-42
methods to be avoided	40
suggestions for improvement in handling fruit	40-42
houses, capacity and equipment	16
location	16
oranges, careless handling.....	40
for shipment, temperature	19
suggestions	40-42
various steps	16-17
when damp, cause of decay.....	39
-Pea, Canada, cover crop in citrus-fruit belt	11
Penicillium digitatum, blue mold of orange	21-23
glaucum, blue mold of orange.....	21-23
Pickers, injury to fruit, percentage by each of ten in same grove.....	25-26
Picking citrus fruits, careless, cause of injuries and decay.....	70
ignorance of growers and packers as to importance of care.....	25-26
investigations as to injuries.....	23-33
methods	14-15
payment by the box as factor in losses.....	28
crews, desirability	14

	Page.
Plates, description	74
Pomelos in California, production	10
Pooling system, cause of careless handling	29
Precooling of citrus fruits, advantages	71
data	55-57
object	52-55
promptness necessary	50
shipments under ice, percentage of decay	49-50
summary of records	69
Refrigeration of citrus fruits, object of cooling before shipment	52-57
in transit, methods	52-53
<i>See also Precooling.</i>	
Refrigerator cars, icing, etc	20
service, methods of shipping	18-20
Regions, citrus fruit, California	11
Saissetia oleae. <i>See</i> Scale, black.	
Scale, black, injury to orange	38
Scutellista cyanea, enemy of black scale	38
Shears, citrus-fruit picking, types	15
Shipment, delay, cause of increase in decay	44
different methods, comparison of decay in fruit	51-52
methods	18-20
oranges, decay in transit, experiments	42-52
time in transit from southern California to Chicago	20
New York	20
precooled fruit in cars iced in California only	63-68
with initial icing only, temperature records	65-68
under ice, experiments, results	46-49
percentage of decay in carefully handled fruit	47
roughly handled fruit	46-47
ventilation, carload temperature record	58
experiments, results	43-46
percentage of decay	43-44
after arrival at market	58-61
precooled fruit, temperature records	68-69
Shipping experiments, general description	42-52
of Bureau of Plant Industry	57
promptness necessary	44
value in delaying development of blue mold	70
season, periods	14
time, citrus fruits	18
Soil, management, citrus-fruit belt	11
Sooty mold, quantity, etc	38
Standard car of oranges, definition	18
grades of orange, definition	17-18
Stems, punctures by, cause of decay	23-30
Storage, cold, temperature records of carload of oranges placed in cold storage	
before shipment	66-67
citrus fruit cooled before loading and iced	
in California only	67-69
decay of oranges, prevention by varying treatments	30-31, 33
Stored oranges, packing houses, average decay, experiments	31-34
Summary of bulletin	69-71

	Page.
Temperature changes in citrus fruit in car compared with outside air.....	64
transit, investigations.....	61-69, 71
citrus fruit in transit, difference in top and bottom of car.....	65
packing oranges for shipment.....	19
records of citrus fruit in transit, shipped under ice.....	60-67
ventilation.....	58-59, 62-64
records of precooled citrus fruit in cars iced in California only ..	67-69
iced cars.....	66-67
under ventilation.....	68-69
Thermometers, positions in cars of fruit shipped under ice.....	62
Tibbets, Mrs. L. C., work in introducing navel orange in California.....	19
Transportation and refrigeration of citrus fruits.....	52-53
of citrus fruits, decay in transit, experiments	42-52
Unbrushed oranges, decay in packing houses.....	31
Ventilation, importance in shipping citrus fruit	18-19
results of shipping experiments.....	43-46
Vetch, winter cover crop in citrus-fruit belt	11
Washing oranges cause of decay	38-39
decay of fruit in packing houses.....	31-34
Washington Navel orange, introduction into California.....	9
Winter shipments, danger of freezing.....	19

O

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BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY—BULLETIN NO. 124.

B. T. GALLOWAY, *Chief of Bureau.*

THE PRICKLY PEAR AS A FARM CROP.

BY

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ASSISTANT AGRICULTURIST, FARM MANAGEMENT INVESTIGATIONS.

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY,
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF,
Washington, D. C., December 6, 1907.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith, and to recommend for publication as Bulletin No. 124 of the series of this Bureau, a manuscript entitled "The Prickly Pear as a Farm Crop," by Dr. David Griffiths, which has been submitted by Prof. W. J. Spillman, Agriculturist in Charge of Farm Management Investigations, with a view to publication.

This is the first report based upon actual experiments dealing with the cultivation upon a field basis of any of the peculiar and interesting plants known as prickly pears. They have been utilized to a large extent in the economy of the stock business of southern Texas, but have never before been cultivated as a field crop in this country.

The author desires to acknowledge his indebtedness in the conduct of these investigations to the cooperation of Mr. Alexander Sinclair, upon whose ranch the work is being carried on, and to his son, Mr. William Sinclair, who has so faithfully cared for the plantation.

Respectfully,

B. T. GALLOWAY,
Chief of Bureau.

HON. JAMES WILSON,
Secretary of Agriculture.

CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction	7
Climatic conditions of the region.....	8
Preparation of cuttings of prickly pear.....	10
Method of planting.....	12
Time of year to plant.....	14
Renewal of plantation.....	15
Cultivation.....	15
Time of harvesting.....	16
Method of harvesting.....	16
Varieties to plant.....	18
Cost of planting.....	19
Spineless compared with spiny species.....	20
Quantity of feed produced by prickly pears.....	22
Cultivation and noncultivation.....	24
Some effects of cultivation.....	25
Uses of the crop.....	26
Prickly pear compared with sorghum.....	27
Enemies of the prickly pear.....	28
Summary	31
Description of plates	34
Index.....	35

ILLUSTRATIONS.

	Page-
PLATE I. Prickly pear experiments. Fig. 1.—Cultivated and uncultivated prickly pear. Fig. 2.—Covering cuttings with a plow. Fig. 3.—Cuttings distributed in furrow ready to be covered. Fig. 4.—Cuttings distributed on the surface of the ground, not to be covered.....	34
II. Prickly pear experiments. Fig. 1.—Cattle grazing singed prickly pear. Fig. 2.—Singeing prickly pear. Fig. 3.—Uncultivated plantation twenty years old. Fig. 4.—Cultivated prickly pear two years old.....	34

124

THE PRICKLY PEAR AS A FARM CROP.

INTRODUCTION.

No attempts have been made hitherto to cultivate prickly pear as a regular crop in this country. The nearest approach to it was made by some of the old mission fathers of California, who imported cuttings, probably from Mexico, and planted them in hedges, where they served the double purpose of barriers against stock and as food for man. That they received any appreciable degree of cultivation, however, is very doubtful. They were probably grown in much the same manner that the so-called cultivated prickly pears are grown in Mexico to-day.

An extended use has been made of the native crop at various times for the past fifty years or more in southern Texas, but it has mainly been spasmodic, lasting only until "the drought was broken," except for sheep and goats, which are fed on it regularly, and in the case of the few dairymen who have made it a practice to feed it for a portion of each year. In short, the prickly pear has been considered an emergency feed, to be used only when other feeds fail. Even enthusiastic pear feeders in Texas thought that the results to be obtained from planting and cultivating an experimental tract would only be "very interesting." There was little expectation that the plants would respond to cultivation as they have done. The facts presented in this paper, however, show that the prickly pear will produce, under proper cultural methods similar to those used for the common staple crops, yields of roughage superior to some of the standard agricultural crops of the region, especially when an off year occurs. It has proved itself under cultivation not only an emergency feed but an insurance against famine, as well as a plant which can be grown and depended upon regularly as a farm crop.

The investigations of this subject at the present time are very opportune indeed, because the demand for such a crop is not as great in southern Texas now as in a thickly settled region, giving ample time for growers to learn just the position that the crop should occupy in the economy of their operations. Land is still changing

hands in southern Texas in 200-section blocks, and all of it has more or less prickly pear growing upon it. It is not to be expected that holders of such areas will be concerned with the culture of prickly pear any more than they will be concerned with the culture of any other crop, for they have plenty of pear growing wild in their pastures now, often more than they can possibly use. Settlement and subdivision of holdings are taking place very rapidly, however, throughout the region, and the time is not far distant when the whole country will be divided up into small holdings where the small farmer will depend upon a variety of crops and where use will be found for a crop like this which can withstand a protracted drought of two or three months or more without artificial irrigation.

Indeed, many large communities now exist which need to grow some crop of this kind. In the vicinity of the larger cities dairymen have for years been in great need of roughage upon which they can depend, as well as succulent feed, which is not usually available during one-half of the year. In the vicinity of San Antonio, Tex., the feeding of the prickly pear has been so extensive during the past six years that the pastures have been practically depleted of it within a radius of eight miles from the city. Still, the hauling of the crop such distances is doubtfully profitable, especially when it must now almost invariably be paid for. When it is remembered that a cow will eat in the neighborhood of 100 pounds a day, it will be readily understood that to haul pear such distances for feed is very burdensome. These dairymen could much better afford to turn some of their native brush pastures into cultivated fields of prickly pear, wherein they could feed the crop with no handling and be insured against a shortage of roughage. The conditions around San Antonio are practically duplicated near Laredo.

Attention should be called here to the fact that this report applies to the experiments conducted at San Antonio only and that the territory to which the experiments apply extends, roughly, from Houston to Del Rio and from Austin to Brownsville. Investigations along similar lines are being conducted in New Mexico, Arizona, California, and Florida, but it is not time to report upon them yet.

CLIMATIC CONDITIONS OF THE REGION.

According to Bulletin Q. "Climatology of the United States," issued by the United States Weather Bureau, the mean annual precipitation for the city of San Antonio for the past eighteen years has been 28.4 inches. The total amount for the driest year for the same period was 15.9 inches, and the total for the wettest year, 40.5. These figures are very important in the interpretation of these investigations and show that the work is being done in a region of relatively high average annual rainfall. These tables do not, however,

tell the whole story. It is necessary to study the monthly totals in order to appreciate the conditions of moisture prevailing. The following table is compiled from monthly totals of precipitation for the past ten years and shows in a striking way how irregular is the distribution of moisture:

TABLE I.—*Monthly totals of precipitation for San Antonio, Tex., for the ten years from 1897 to 1906, inclusive, in inches.*

Month.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	Monthly extremes.
January.....	1.59	0.46	0.38	5.42	0.41	0.70	2.39	0.30	0.88	0.29	0.30 to 5.42
February.....	1.15	1.16	.31	.34	.71	.55	7.88	.64	1.62	1.07	.15 to 7.88
March.....	1.65	1.47	*T.	4.34	.54	.12	1.29	.16	2.74	1.29	*T. to 4.34
April.....	1.84	1.46	2.60	9.11	.59	2.31	1.74	3.25	6.08	3.94	.59 to 9.11
May.....	3.13	1.06	2.22	4.47	2.47	3.14	1.95	5.93	4.11	.86	1.06 to 5.93
June.....	2.19	7.06	4.32	.78	1.86	.02	4.75	1.73	6.01	.62	.02 to 7.06
July.....	.28	2.24	2.85	2.24	3.79	3.85	7.52	3.50	2.82	4.34	.28 to 7.52
August.....	.40	3.35	.00	4.05	.06	.00	.20	1.97	.51	2.25	.00 to 4.05
September.....	1.61	1.32	.57	.97	4.20	5.52	2.96	7.74	1.80	1.74	.57 to 7.47
October.....	1.35	.03	1.31	2.94	.12	2.54	1.61	2.86	1.83	1.09	.03 to 2.94
November.....	.43	1.34	1.70	1.82	.64	3.53	*T.	24	2.63	1.33	*T. to 3.53
December.....	1.34	1.54	3.39	.70	.15	2.51	.82	1.06	1.56	1.60	.15 to 3.39

* T.= trace.

With an equitable distribution of the rainfall there would be less demand for a crop which can withstand periods of drought.

The column showing monthly extremes in the table above is most striking; only three months have a minimum of more than one-half inch. A glance at the columns of monthly totals will show nearly as striking variations for the seasons. Even this table does not tell the complete story. One must take into consideration the torrential character of the summer rains. A rainfall of 4 inches is not at all uncommon and may occur over a very local area.

These are the moisture conditions especially adapted to the successful growth of prickly pear. Attention is called to this especially because of the apparently well-established idea in the popular mind that the plants will grow with little or no water—i. e., are adapted to any desert condition. On the contrary, they are adapted to grow where the rainfall is considerable but irregularly or periodically distributed. These plants can not grow without water any more than any others, but they can get along for long periods without it on account of the large quantities which they store up in their succulent tissues.

As regards temperature^a we are concerned with this crop mainly in the minimum. The lowest temperature recorded by the Weather

^a The records are all compiled from the United States Weather Bureau records in the city of San Antonio, which are not perfectly satisfactory for our station, because it is not only 8 miles distant, but 79 feet above the ground, and consequently may not represent conditions where the plants grow within several degrees. These records, however, are the only ones available.

Bureau for the San Antonio station is 4° F. in February, 1899, at which time, according to the best information obtainable, pear as well as the huisache (*Acacia farnesiana*) was badly frozen all over southern Texas. This is an unusual temperature and has occurred but once since the establishment of the station. The minimum in 1905, the lowest since these investigations were begun, occurred on February 13, when a temperature of 13° F. was reached. Even this was considered an unusually cold season. At this time the native prickly pear appeared to be near the limit of its perfect endurance. A few plants in the open drooped a little, but no permanent injury was done, as they straightened up again in a short time. The minimum Fahrenheit readings recorded for San Antonio for ten consecutive years, beginning with 1906, are as follows: 24°, 13°, 22°, 19°, 26°, 15°, 19°, 4°, 20°, 18°, 27°, and 11°. But even these temperatures are of short duration. It is seldom that seven days occur during an entire winter with an absolute minimum below 22° F. Winters are rather frequent when this temperature is not reached.

Besides a minimum not lower than something like 12° F. a high average summer temperature is an advantage in the culture of prickly pear. During the ten years ending in 1903 there occurred on an average only four days a year with a maximum over 100° F. One year of this period had twelve days with a maximum above 100° F. and one year's maximum did not reach 100° F. The conditions in this respect are presented in the following table:^a

TABLE II.—Maximum, minimum, and mean temperatures at San Antonio, Tex., for a period of eighteen and one-half years, 1888 to 1906, inclusive.

Month.	Mean.	Maxi- mum.	Mini- mum.	Month.	Mean.	Maxi- mum.	Mini- mum.
	°F.	°F.	°F.		°F.	°F.	°F.
January.....	52	82	6	July.....	83	106	64
February.....	55	90	4	August.....	83	103	57
March.....	62	97	21	September.....	78	100	46
April.....	70	99	35	October.....	70	97	37
May.....	75	97	44	November.....	60	90	22
June.....	81	103	54	December.....	55	86	15

PREPARATION OF CUTTINGS OF PRICKLY PEAR.

When these investigations were begun certain conventional formulæ for planting all species of cacti were more or less in vogue. These were found in the practices of horticulturists and in published reports, mainly of French investigators in northern Africa. These practices, briefly summarized, related mainly to propagation from cuttings. It has been the custom among horticulturists, as well as the practice of the growers mentioned above, to prepare the

^a See also discussions of temperature on page 21.

cuttings some time, commonly two weeks, before planting them. In other words, the joints were somewhat wilted before being planted. This practice appears to be necessary under greenhouse conditions, and growers in northern Africa seem to be quite insistent upon the same practice for out-of-door culture. When planted under the humid conditions of the greenhouse, cuttings are much more likely to decay at the surface of the ground unless some of the moisture is evaporated before the cut surface is put in contact with moist earth.

Prickly pear cuttings do not callous over and produce roots from the cambium and buds as do cuttings from ordinary trees and shrubs, but the cut surface heals over and roots are put forth from the areoles which contain the spines. It is important to bear this in mind in the propagation of the prickly pears. From the greenhouse standpoint it is necessary that the cut surface be thoroughly dried before the cutting is set.

Some attention was paid to this practice when the first plantings were made in the spring of 1905. An attempt was made to prepare the cuttings at least forty-eight hours before they were planted, but it was not always done. Indeed, a considerable part of the planting occurred immediately after the cuttings were prepared. No bad effect was observed from the practice followed, although some of the cuttings were planted during a very wet season. Since that time no attention has been paid to the wilting of the cuttings.

The practice has been to use one-joint cuttings almost entirely for planting, and it is believed that this is the most advantageous, all things considered, for commercial practice. The favorite instrument for making the cuttings has been a hoe straightened out so that the blade is in a straight line with the handle. This is used much as a spade might be used for the same purpose. With this instrument the whole plant is cut up, as nearly as is convenient, into individual joints. Of course it is not always convenient or even possible to strike the union between the joints exactly, but this is approximated as closely as possible. Sometimes the instrument severs one side or the other, but this appears to make little difference, if any.

When the 6 acres of ground were planted in the spring of 1907, it was done with the avowed purpose of performing the work as it was considered the practical farmer or dairyman would carry it on. It was the intention to get as practical a test as possible. The plants after being brought to the field were cut up into single joints mainly by the writer, but the hauling and distributing of the cuttings were done principally by negro and Mexican labor. The handling was done entirely with pitchforks, and the laborers were not cautioned at all about being careful not to injure the stock. As a result, practically every joint planted upon the entire 6 acres had from one to a half

dozen tine holes in it. In spite of this, it is certain that at least 99 per cent of the cuttings grew. Indeed, the stand on all portions of the field was practically perfect.

The above experience is cited to show that there is nothing impracticable in our method of rough handling of the cuttings, not as a justification of such handling. The less injury the cuttings receive the better they will grow and the more vigorous plants will they make without doubt; but it is by no means imperative that care to the sacrifice of speed in handling should be indulged in. The cuttings will withstand quite rough treatment and still make good plants, but they should not be unnecessarily bruised or mangled.

As has been stated, single-joint cuttings have been used as a rule. Occasionally when joints were very small two of them have been left attached. The whole plant has been used invariably. All the joints appear to grow equally well, but large, heavy joints two or more years old make much the best plants. Good plants are always obtained from old woody stems, often six or seven years old. These are also much less likely to be bruised and otherwise injured in handling than the younger growth.

The Mexican people who handle very small quantities commonly plant two and a half to three joint cuttings. Their object is to get fruit as early as possible. In the cultivation of their large tame forms they are not concerned with the stock-feed side of the question. They claim to get a good crop of fruit the third year from such cuttings, while it would take five years to secure the same crop from single-joint cuttings. Good crops of fruit have been secured from single-joint cuttings of the native *Opuntia lindheimeri* in three years in southern Texas. The large tame forms of Mexico are much larger plants, and it may consequently take them longer to come into bearing. Indeed, none of them grown from single-joint cuttings alongside of the Texas forms produced fruit in any quantity the third year.

METHOD OF PLANTING.

There are many points connected with the various operations of planting, cultivating, and handling of these plants that have not been fully demonstrated as yet. The best that can be done in connection with some of these processes is to give an account of the methods which have been used in these experiments. It is expected, of course, that these will be improved upon as our experience in growing prickly pear becomes more extensive.

When the cultural work was taken up a 6-foot row was decided upon as the most suitable. The distance between the cuttings in the row has been varied from 2 to 4 feet. Although plantings have been made for the purpose of determining which is the best distance,

still it is not possible to make any definite recommendations at the present time any more than to say that close planting appears to be more productive in a general way than the more distant planting. So thoroughly did this appear to be the case in our first experiments that the entire 6 acres planted in the spring of 1907 had cuttings planted 2 feet apart, from center to center, in 6 or 8 foot rows.

It is recommended to those who contemplate the cultivation of this crop for forage in southern Texas that 6-foot rows be adopted and that the cuttings be set 2 feet apart, from center to center, in the row. This will enable one to cultivate one way for two seasons, and the crop if harvested at the end of this time can be cultivated again for the succeeding two seasons, when the second crop is being grown, and so on indefinitely. It will be difficult to get a horse through 6-foot rows after the second year. It is quite possible that further experience will demonstrate that other distances will be more advantageous. It may be that 2 feet apart in the row will bring the plants too close together to produce the maximum yield, or that the red spider will prove less injurious when the plants are grown farther apart. These are questions which will require practice to fully demonstrate. At present it appears that 2 by 6 feet is the proper distance.

The stock planted has been secured from native pastures within a radius of 2 miles from the experiments. The plants cut off at or near the ground have been loaded on wagons with pitchforks. Sometimes the larger plants have been cut up somewhat to facilitate handling. Wagonloads of stock of this kind have been distributed in the field in piles (see Pl. I, fig. 3), which were subsequently prepared for planting by cutting the plants into individual joints with a hoe straightened upon its handle as described elsewhere. The cuttings were then distributed with a pitchfork to the places where they were to grow. Much labor can be saved by a careful distribution of the material so that it need not be carried far.

Several methods of setting the cuttings have been tested. In the earlier plantings some were set on edge in furrows or in holes opened up with a shovel. This hand labor was very expensive and troublesome, and it was soon recognized that it would not do for commercial practice. In the last plantings made the cuttings were not touched by hand at all. A portion of the 6-acre tract planted in 1907 was laid out in rows by running a shallow furrow with a small walking plow. The cuttings were laid against the furrow, the base reaching nearly to the bottom of the depression (Pl. I, fig. 3). Another furrow was then turned in the same direction, throwing dirt over the bases of these joints, covering ap-

proximately one-half of them, sometimes more and sometimes less.^a (Pl. I, fig. 2.) Another portion of the field was simply marked and the joints were laid on the surface of the ground at proper distances in the rows thus laid out, (Pl. I, fig. 4.)

When the ground is very dry, cloddy, or otherwise poorly prepared, it will be advantageous to partially cover the cuttings; but if the ground is well pulverized and in such condition that moisture will be brought to the surface by capillarity, just as good results will be secured by simply placing the cuttings on their sides in firm contact with the ground. Indeed, in the first plantings better plants were secured in this way than when the joints were planted on edge.

There is good reason for this. Attention has been called to the fact that roots spring from the areoles or cushions of spines and spicules distributed regularly over the surface of the stems (joints). This statement is equally true of the new growth. It always springs from these areoles, but these spaces are always more numerous around the edges of the disk-like cuttings. When the cuttings are laid flat on the ground it is but a short time before unequal evaporation from the two surfaces causes them to dish slightly. This will leave the areoles in the center of the lower surface in contact with the ground. They will form roots in a very short time. From any portion of the slightly upturned edge of the joint new growth may take place. In the case of joints buried 6 inches or more by the plow, or otherwise, the surface for new growth is reduced at least by one-half and the base or foundation of the plant is also reduced, or, more properly, is much smaller than when the cutting is laid flat and the whole edge is in position to send out new growth.

It is very fortunate that the plants grow readily in this position, for planting in this way greatly reduces the labor involved. Usually all that is necessary is to drop the cutting into place from the fork. At other times it may be necessary to press it down with the foot or a slight pressure of the fork after it is in place. It should be borne in mind that the cuttings should be in contact with the ground. If they are held away from it an inch or so by clods, or even by the long, stout spines found in some of the varieties, the chances of their becoming established are greatly reduced. Indeed, if none of the areoles is in actual contact with moist earth the cuttings will not grow.

TIME OF YEAR TO PLANT.

There are indeed few, if any, crops which have such a range of adaptability as regards the time at which they may be planted. Be-

^a Care must be taken not to cover the joints, for they will almost invariably rot if this is done.

ginning with February, 1905, plantings were made between the first and tenth of each calendar month, except August, for the next twelve months, to determine, if possible, the most favorable season. No plantings were made in August because it was excessively dry and hot, similar to July, when cuttings failed to grow. All other plantings grew as well at one season of the year as another. All of the plantings, except a part of those made in February, were upon uncultivated ground, the joints being placed in a furrow and partially covered, as described elsewhere. This feature is again a decided advantage, for it enables the farmer to plant this crop at almost any time of the year. In other words, it can be done during a season when other farm operations are not pressing. There is little doubt that cuttings will grow even in July and August, provided those months happen to be sufficiently moist.

RENEWAL OF PLANTATION.

Little is known about the length of time during which a plantation will grow when repeatedly harvested in a systematic manner. No reliable data are available. The nearest approach is in the case of the planting made by Mr. D. M. Poor (Pl. II, fig. 3). This plantation, consisting of two-thirds of an acre, was established by Mr. Poor about 1885. He laid off the ground in rows 2 feet apart, with an ordinary two-horse plow, in land which had been cleared of brush but never broken. Native pear was chopped up into one or two joint cuttings, distributed in the furrows, and subsequently partly covered with another furrow. The area has been used more or less for twenty years, but it has never been cultivated. It has never been harvested closely and certainly never systematically.

A plantation well established and cultivated is good for an indefinite period, say fifteen or twenty years. Should plants in various portions of the field die for some reason, it is a very simple matter to establish new ones when the crop is on the ground. All that is necessary is to cut off a joint and put it in the proper place flat on the ground.

CULTIVATION.

Upon the subject of cultivation little need be said. The ground to receive the cuttings should be well and deeply prepared, and subsequent cultivation should probably be shallow, for the plants are shallow rooted. There are no cultivators known which are exactly suited to this crop. In the experimental work described in these pages an ordinary one-horse spike-tooth cultivator has been employed. The objection to this implement is that the framework is too large, interfering with the projecting branches of the plant, and also it is not easily regulated as to depth. Some tool of the nature of a one-horse

sweep which could be regulated so as not to go into the ground much more than 2 inches would be more serviceable. In the experimental plantation it has been the endeavor to cultivate just enough to keep down the weeds and prevent the ground from baking. To keep down the weeds thoroughly it has been necessary to go through the plantation occasionally with a hoe, knocking down such stray weeds as the cultivator did not reach.

TIME OF HARVESTING.

It is not the purpose of this paper to attempt to say how often it will be most profitable to harvest crops of prickly pear from established cultivated plantations. Experience in this matter, as in many others, has been too brief. All that will be attempted at the present time is to state what can be done with one definite plan of cropping.

Prickly pear has been considered a slow-growing plant, and indeed it is a slow grower under natural conditions, where it is obliged to compete with hardy grasses and other vegetation. In a previous publication^a the opinion has been expressed that it will take five years to produce a crop on uncultivated lands in the vicinity of Eagle Pass, Tex., while in the same publication estimates made by ranchers give the period as from two to three years. There appears to be no reason at present for changing the first estimate for uncultivated lands, while it has been demonstrated that a crop can be profitably harvested in two years in cultivated plantations. Whether a proportionately greater yield can be secured by allowing the plants to grow three or four years has not been determined, but a paying crop can be secured at the end of the second year, and probably can be utilized at the end of eighteen months to good advantage if plantings are made in February or March. The first harvesting done upon the experimental tract was two years after planting. As shown in another place, there was at that time more than sufficient roughage upon an acre to feed two cows for one year.

But little fruit will be produced the first two years, but quite a large crop will usually be secured the third year.

METHOD OF HARVESTING.

The different methods of preparing prickly pear for the use of stock have been sufficiently discussed in other publications^b and need not be repeated here.

In the singeing process economy depends largely upon the disposition of the plants. In the case of natural growth much time is

^a Bulletin No. 74, Bureau of Plant Industry, "The Prickly Pear and Other Cacti as Food for Stock," 1905.

^b Especially in Bulletin No. 74 of the Bureau of Plant Industry, pp. 12-20.

consumed in walking from one plant to another, because the plants are usually scattered over the field. Systematic planting economizes both time and fuel.

In the harvesting which has been done thus far upon the experimental plantations the torch has been used on standing plants, and cattle have then been turned on to graze them (Pl. II, figs. 1 and 2). Others have been cut down and hauled out of the field. This work was done in the spring of 1907. In the autumn of the same season little, if any, difference could be noticed between the growth made by the plants harvested by the two methods. Those plants grazed by the cattle, however, were left in a very ragged condition and consequently did not present so good an appearance. So far as growth is concerned, however, it must be admitted that grazed pear was nearly, if not quite, as good as that which was cut down and hauled off.

There are several methods of harvesting open to the grower, two of which have been mentioned here. Besides these methods the plants may be cut down before singeing, and, if desired, two rows may be cut into one center. The plants as they lie on the ground may then be singed. Again the plants may be singed as they stand in the row and then cut down, the cattle being allowed to graze them where they fall. It is quite possible that the best method is the last mentioned.

The singeing is done by pointing the blast flame downward in the center of the plant, because in this way the maximum surface is covered at one time by the flame. Afterwards the outer joints will be touched by the blast. These processes can easily be regulated so as to interfere but very little with the stump which is to be left standing. After the singeing the plants can be cut down and grazed where they fall. This will avoid leaving the stems partially chewed and macerated, in which condition they are more likely to decay and result in injury to subsequent growth. Of course the plants can be cut down before singeing, but the burning can not be done so advantageously after the plants are felled. When standing, both sides of the joints, which are in a more or less upright position, can be easily reached with the flame, while when felled the lower side in contact with the ground can not be so easily singed. The two most important requirements are economy of time and fuel and protection of the stumps which are to produce future growth. These requirements should be borne in mind constantly. Any process which economizes time and fuel and does not injure the stem is the one to use. It seems to the writer that singeing and then cutting the plants down to be grazed where they fall accomplishes this result best.

In some instances in the experimental investigations the harvesting has been close, leaving nothing of the old plant but the original cut-

ting. In other cases the harvesting has been done so as to leave all the joints directly attached to the original cutting. The latter plan leaves a stump of two to four joints. If the plant was established from a cutting laid on the surface of the ground, a large base and a good surface for future growth to spring from will be secured. There is no doubt that a large stump of this kind is an advantage; neither is there much doubt that these old stumps will produce a much heavier yield for the second biennial crop than is produced from the freshly established cuttings for the first crop. A considerably heavier growth was secured during the season of 1907 from plants having a stump of three or four joints from which to develop.

VARIETIES TO PLANT.

In the southern Texas region there are several native varieties of prickly pear, but in each locality there is usually one variety which predominates. The very fact that it does predominate is fairly good proof of its superior value for that locality.

In the vicinity of San Antonio the predominating variety is the typical form of *Opuntia lindheimeri* Englm., and this is the one which is considered the best of all the forms for cultivation in this immediate locality. Before any plantings were made upon the experimental tract a careful examination was made of the varieties in the neighborhood, and this one selected is the most promising. Subsequent results—for other varieties were also planted for comparison—confirmed the first judgment. There is no question that this is the most valuable of all the forms and species used. It has prominent and formidable spines, which turn white toward the end of the first season's growth, and abundant light golden spicules.^a Another native variety with a trifle darker color, less formidable spines, and brown spicules has also made nearly as good growth and a much heavier crop of fruit. This may prove valuable. From 150 to 200 varieties have been planted. On the whole, none is to be recommended above the spiny native just mentioned. Some of the varieties planted, however, have characters which are decidedly advantageous.

One cultivated spiny form secured farther south is very promising for breeding purposes. It has withstood the climate the first two winters very well, but should another winter like 1904-5 occur it is certain to suffer badly, for it was cut back very severely then in the locality where secured. The spines on this one are not as formidable as on the native form that is being grown, and the spicules are almost

^a See Bulletin No. 91, Bureau of Animal Industry, 1906, pp. 9-11, for further notes on this species.

entirely absent on the joints. This variety has made a growth at the rate of not less than 55 tons to the acre per annum during the past two years.

The prospective planter should study the plants in his locality carefully before planting. He should select that form which makes the largest and most rapid, clean growth, and from that variety he should choose the most healthy plants. Selection should be made first for vigor and second with reference to the habit of the plant. In southern Texas those forms growing most erect are to be preferred. In no case should a low, prostrate, or sprangling form be used. As compact a growth as possible is desirable on account of the greater ease with which such forms are singed and cultivated. An open-branching, low habit of growth renders the operation of cultivation very difficult on account of the interference of the branches with the animals and the machinery used in cultivation.

COST OF PLANTING.

During the spring of 1907 a careful record was kept of the cost of planting 6 acres of prickly pear upon the experimental plots. Owing to the requirements of the farm, men could not be employed regularly for full days on the planting and preparation of the ground, but so far as the value of the record goes it is considered that nothing is lost, for the time has been kept in hours for man and team.

The ground selected had never been plowed. It was in native grass, closely pastured for several years, and had been grubbed nearly clean of mesquite and other brush years ago. The greater part of the plowing and harrowing was done at odd times between the 1st of January and the 1st of March. The season being very dry considerable difficulty was experienced in getting the soil well pulverized, and even the plowing was done with much difficulty.

The stock used for planting was secured from various local sources, ranging from close by to 2 miles distant. The greater part of the stock, although it was practically all of the same variety, was hauled from a neighboring ranch 2 miles away. Some was cut from a pasture about half a mile distant, and about four loads from a smaller experimental tract planted two years ago contiguous to the present field.

The time employed in the various planting operations, exclusive of the preparation of the ground (plowing and harrowing), was as follows:

	Hours.
One man and team hauling stock (6 acres)-----	85
One man and team marking (6 acres) and covering (3 acres)-----	14
One man distributing cuttings (6 acres)-----	54

The laborers used in hauling were negroes and Mexicans, and the time was not employed to good advantage. It will be seen from the

above statement that the heaviest item of expense was for hauling the stock for planting, which ought to have been done, even under the disadvantages of distance, much cheaper.

Assuming the value of a man and a team at \$3 and a man at \$1 a day of ten hours, the cost of planting an acre after the ground is prepared is a little less than \$6. If it is assumed that the value of the preparation for planting is \$3 an acre, then it costs about \$9 an acre to get the cuttings planted. With good labor advantageously employed this expense could doubtless be reduced to \$6 or \$7 an acre, but even at \$9 the operation is not expensive when it is considered that a plantation is probably good for fifteen or twenty years and that subsequent planting or establishing plants is a simple matter when the material is on the ground and all that is necessary to establish a new plant is to lay a joint in firm contact with the soil.

SPINELESS COMPARED WITH SPINY SPECIES.

Much emphasis has been placed of late, especially in popular writings, upon the great advantages of spineless prickly pears. The spines of these plants leave an unpleasant memory. They are difficult to handle, and the novice usually can not conceive how the plants can be utilized at all on account of their formidable armament. It naturally follows that if spineless forms can be substituted the last objection to them has been removed. They could then be handled with bare hands, and eaten as they grow by all kinds of live stock. So firmly is the "spineless cactus" idea established in the public mind that much talk has been made about establishing such forms, even on the deserts, supplanting the native forms and producing an abundance of forage for live stock—this to be utilized without the singeing process to which the native spiny forms must be subjected.

While such ideas are very interesting and attractive, there are many practical considerations which must be taken into account. Of course, the experience of the writer is as yet meager, these experiments having been carried on only about four years. However, observation, together with three or four years' experimental evidence, while not conclusive, points strongly to certain conclusions which are not at all favorable to spineless forms for southern Texas, for the immediate future at least.

Thus far no spineless forms have been found which are hardy under the conditions existing at San Antonio. The writer has secured ten or twelve spineless forms from Mexico, and the Office of Seed and Plant Introduction of the Bureau of Plant Industry has imported for investigations as many more from Hawaii, southern Europe, and northern Africa, all of which have been planted and well cared for. All that are left of these spineless forms at the

present time are such individual plants as have been protected during the winter. There are a few nearly spineless forms here and there in southern Texas, but so far as has been observed none of them are quite hardy. They live through one or two winters all right, but may be frozen down badly the third winter. The nearest approach to hardiness that has been seen is in the city of Laredo, Tex. There are here a few plants (nearly spineless) which often pass the winter uninjured, but they were frozen to such an extent in February, 1904, that not less than one-half of the joints broke off. Even these are not hardy upon the plantation at San Antonio and probably would suffer nearly every winter at Laredo were the plants there not protected by surrounding buildings.

Lack of hardiness renders the spineless forms of no economic value at the present time in southern Texas. If they can not withstand the winter temperature it is of course useless to plant them. But while this is true it is not at all improbable that these smooth forms may in time become very important and possibly entirely supplant in culture those forms which are now being grown. The bringing about of such a condition is, however, a long and tedious process which will involve years of breeding in which the farmer can usually take little or no part. Work along this line is now being conducted for the benefit and use of the future, but *present results must be secured from spiny natives*. Of course, in experimental work sight is not lost of the fact that economic conditions may change in the future so that it will be advisable to have spineless forms, but the whole question is one of production. If spineless forms which are hardy and which will produce more feed than spiny species which are now being grown can be evolved they will be valuable in proportion to the excess of feed which they will produce. This is as yet a purely experimental field, but the spiny native varieties have been proved to be valuable.

Aside from lack of hardiness, the spineless prickly pears have other disadvantages. Wherever grown they have to be fenced. It will be obviously impossible to grow them in uncultivated pastures, even in regions where they are hardy, for they would be grazed too closely, if not exterminated in a very short while. Fences are expensive. Unless the area planted to these forms were very large, which it could not be for some time, a rabbit-proof fence would be required. This sort of fence has been found necessary in order to protect the varietal plantings made by the Bureau of Plant Industry at San Antonio. Spineless forms would be severely injured by rabbits, gophers, and rats. The latter often do considerable injury to the spiny native plants, but the spineless forms would suffer very severely. A planting of about a hundred cuttings of imported varie-

ties, not all spineless, was completely destroyed in a fortnight by rabbits in southern Arizona two years ago. When a large acreage is planted the danger from these pests will not, of course, be so seriously felt, but it will be many years before any extended plantings of spineless forms can be made. There is not enough stock of spineless prickly pears in this country at the present time to plant 5 acres if it were all gathered into one place.

A plantation of spineless prickly pear would not only have to be fenced, but stock could not be allowed to enter the field at any time of the year, for they would trample over the entire field, knocking down plants hither and yon and causing an unwarranted waste. All of the crop would have to be harvested, loaded on wagons, and hauled to another lot to be fed. Remembering that 100 pounds a day will be eaten by an average cow, it will be seen that this procedure will mean considerable expense. In a 100-cow dairy it will mean the moving of 5 tons of material for feed each day, besides the removal of the manure. On the other hand, the spiny forms, singed and fed where they stand, obviate this expensive handling and cause the manure for 100 cows to be distributed each day on about one-fifteenth of an acre—by no means a small item in maintaining fertility. With spiny forms the number of plants fed or grazed each day is absolutely within the control of the rancher, even though stock is allowed in the field all of the time.

So far as southern Texas is concerned the advantages of the spineless and spiny prickly pears concerning which we have any knowledge may be summed up as follows:

Advantages of spiny native forms.

1. They are hardy.
2. They do not require fencing.
3. They are injured but little by wild animals.
4. They require a minimum of handling.
5. They accomplish the distribution of the manure during the day.

Advantages of spineless forms.

1. They do not require singeing.

QUANTITY OF FEED PRODUCED BY PRICKLY PEARS.

Our knowledge of the yield of prickly pear, either under natural or cultivated conditions, is as yet quite imperfect, and the statements made herein with reference to yields are made with such reservation as is consistent with the meagerness of the evidence. However, it is believed that all computations in whatever manner made are exceedingly conservative, and underestimate rather than overestimate in every case what may be secured from a cultivated crop of prickly pears.

The first plantings at San Antonio, and, indeed, the first attempt ever made in this country to cultivate this plant as food for stock so far as the writer is aware, occurred in February, 1905. A plot of ground 416 feet long and 208 feet wide (2 acres) was secured under lease the preceding winter. Half of this area was plowed and put in a good state of cultivation, the other half being left in the condition in which it was found, i. e., in native sod, with all brush removed. One half of the cultivated portion (one-half acre) was reserved for varietal plantings and the other half was planted to three or four varieties of native species, the typical *Opuntia lindheimeri* predominating over all others. The whole area was laid off into 6-foot rows, numbered 1 to 69, and all plantings have been made on this plan, variation being made in the distance apart of the plantings in the row only.

Early in March, 1907, when the plantation was 2 years old, the first harvesting was made. No weights were obtained except on a small scale—too small, in fact, to make a reliable record, and consequently need not be reported upon here. In one instance 75 head of stock were turned in to graze off two rows which had been singled. As nearly as could be estimated this number of cows got from this small area a full day's ration of roughage. There were some young cows among them, and some which did not eat pear as freely as they should, but nevertheless they had been fed prickly pear regularly all the winter and were still receiving it daily. Accepting the above as the measure of the biennial production of forage of this plant under cultivation, it will readily be appreciated that at this rate 2 acres of this crop would, roughly, supply roughage for 75 cows for one month, and 25 acres would, roughly, supply their needs for one year, but as it took two years to grow this crop, on this basis it would require only 50 acres to furnish rough feed for 75 cows continuously. It is recognized that this is a very crude and imperfect estimate of production, but it is, nevertheless, instructive when taken in connection with what the eye can see of the 2-year-old crop shown in Plate II, figure 4. In order to put the matter very conservatively, suppose this area was increased 50 per cent; this would mean that 75 acres would furnish 75 cows with continuous roughage. This is still a production equaled by that of few areas in the country. This quantity was produced during one very favorable and one very unfavorable season and probably represents about the average crop.

More definite data upon production were secured early in October, 1907, when the plantation was 31 months old. At this time two rows were selected near the east side of the native plantings on cultivated ground because they were thought to be typical of the half acre of the cultivated native *Opuntia lindheimeri*. These rows were har-

vested down to the original cutting and weighed. These two rows, numbered 20 and 21 in the records, yielded 8,518 pounds. Rows 35 and 36 were then harvested, and weighed in the same manner. Row 36 was considered the poorest in the area. This was in part due to its being in close proximity to uncultivated ground and in lesser part to the ravages of the red spider. These rows were taken in order to be certain not to overestimate the production. These two rows yielded 7,269 pounds. On the four rows, therefore, there were produced 15,787 pounds. The area occupied by them measures three, twenty-sixths of an acre. The yield to the acre, consequently, was 136,820 pounds, or 68½ tons. On account of the time of the year at which the measurements were made it is rather difficult to reduce this thirty-one months' growth into yearly terms, but if it is assumed that three years' growth was secured an average yearly production of 22½ tons of green, succulent forage is shown.

This estimate of the average growth per annum of 22½ tons is certainly conservative. It is evident that the growing season is not closed the 1st of October, but, on the other hand, that a very decided increase will occur between that time and February. Again, the measurements were made at the close of a long dry season. It is quite certain that the growth for the remaining five months, together with the water absorption of the humid winter season, would be expressed by tons to the acre. Besides this growth of plant body, there was produced during the third growing season between 4 and 5 tons of fruit to the acre. This fruit is greatly relished by horses, cattle, sheep, and swine, and is harvested by them without assistance and without injury to the plants.

In feeding dairy cattle^a at San Antonio it was found that a complete roughage ration of prickly pear consisted of about 140 pounds for each cow daily. In feeding steers for market at Encinal, Tex., an average of about 75 pounds was eaten daily by each steer. These figures would indicate that 100 pounds is about what the average animal will eat in a day. But the yields previously stated show that sufficient roughage is grown here on an acre for about one and one-fourth animals.

Any way it is figured, roughage of prickly pear for one mature bovine animal on an acre seems to be a very conservative estimate.

CULTIVATION AND NONCULTIVATION.

At the same time that estimates were made of the rate of growth on cultivated ground rows 37 and 38 were harvested. These were grown without cultivation. As stated elsewhere, a furrow was opened

^a Bulletin No. 91, Bureau of Animal Industry, 1906.

in the native sod, the joints laid against the land side, and the dirt pulled back over their bases. The growth of pear on these two rows in thirty-one months weighed 980 pounds. This is at the rate of 8.49 tons to the acre. Reducing this to terms of annual growth in the same manner as was done in the other case, we have 2.83 tons to represent the growth per annum upon uncultivated ground; in other words, eight times as much forage was produced under cultivation. (See Pl. I, fig. 1.)

The method of planting insured the rooting of the cuttings practically the same upon uncultivated as upon cultivated land. Practically every cutting in either situation rooted and grew through the period specified.

It should be noted that the plantation is under fence. The prickly pear upon the uncultivated ground, therefore, had to compete with its full complement of grass growth. It would have made a greater gain if the grasses were grazed off, as they commonly are in the native pastures of the region. The figures showing the relation of the production under the two conditions are consequently not comparable with what would take place in pasture-grown pear. Indeed, the growth in Mr. Sinclair's pastures just outside of our fence was very much greater than that upon our uncultivated area. This furnishes a very strong suggestion as to the cause of the increase of prickly pear in some sections of southern Texas since its occupation and settlement. Formerly, when grasses were not grazed so closely, they were stronger competitors of the prickly pears than they are now and were able to keep it in check. Overgrazing, coupled with the prevention of fires, is doubtless responsible for the excessive growth of prickly pear in some sections of the region. On the other hand, the rapid increase of mesquite and other brush tends to check the growth of the pear, for it does not thrive in the shade.

SOME EFFECTS OF CULTIVATION.

During the year 1907 the drought from June to October 1 was much more pronounced than the average for this section. The prickly pear in the pastures surrounding the experimental plantings, as a consequence, was suffering considerably by the 1st of October. Nearly all of it was somewhat shriveled, and in a few instances the color had begun to change, showing the beginning of interference with metabolism. Upon the cultivated area, on the contrary, the long period with little precipitation had no apparent effect. All plants were thrifty and vigorous. It is believed that no particular injury would have resulted if no rain had occurred for another three months.

The effect of cultivation upon the development of spines is naturally of some interest, and since the writer has often been questioned regarding the comparative spininess of cultivated and uncultivated plants, a few remarks upon the subject are made, with, however, no attempt at any generalization. In the case of the typical form of *Opuntia lindheimeri*, which is being grown in the experiments, there is a decided increase in spininess under cultivation. Indeed, the entire plant looks somewhat different when cultivated; that is, a plant under favorable conditions is just as different from a plant growing under unfavorable conditions in this species as in the common cultivated crops. A comparison of Plate II, figure 3, with Plate II, figure 4, will tell better than words what the differences are. The first is a view of the Poor plantation, which, although planted originally, is in a practically native condition, for it was never cultivated. It will be readily seen that the spines are fewer by several fold upon the uncultivated plants. No quantitative measurements have ever been made, and consequently only general statements are possible at this time.

USES OF THE CROP.

A more or less complete discussion of the uses to which prickly pear is put will be found in Bulletin No. 74 of this series, and a further discussion of the value of the crop is contained in Bulletin No. 91 of the Bureau of Animal Industry of this Department.

The crop appears especially adapted to dairy purposes because of the comparative ease with which the ration can be balanced by the addition of concentrates, which are used with all roughage in this region. The succulence appears to be a decided advantage, and of course can be obtained at any time of the year if the plants are grazed where standing or are harvested as fed. The importance of this can not be overestimated, for it applies to all seasons of the year, and oftentimes green feed for dairy cattle is as difficult to secure in the summer as in the winter. There is an impression in some sections that this feed can not be used after the new growth starts in the spring, but this is entirely disproved by the practices of several ranchers who have used it at all seasons of the year with good results. Of course there is a period during which the young growth will not be eaten on account of its being distasteful to animals,^a and this growth will therefore be wasted at that time, but there is no season of the year when pear will not be readily eaten, especially if other feeds are short or dry.

It is very probable that the crop can also be used successfully for the production of baby beef, as has been suggested by Mr. Sinclair,

^a See Bulletin No. 91, Bureau of Animal Industry, 1906, p. 17.

who has fed pear with as great success as anyone in southern Texas. This region has been a favorite breeding ground for many years, and much beef is constantly prepared for market, a large part of which is accomplished by the use of prickly pear at some stage of its growth. The great drawback in any beef production—especially in the production of baby beef—is a lack of continuity of feed. An abundance of pasture is to be had in some seasons, but in other seasons it is too short for the maintenance of a steady rapid growth. A roughage like this, therefore, which can be utilized at any season and is a sure crop, fills a gap not filled by any other.

Prickly pear roughage is relished by nearly all kinds of live stock. No case is known of horses being fed on it, but other classes of stock eat it readily. Cattle, sheep, goats, and swine relish it, and even chickens utilize it when it is chopped for them. Hogs will eat even stumps and heavy joints that cattle leave.

In short, it can be said that prickly pear is of vastly more importance in southern Texas than is ordinarily appreciated. A crop which will produce twenty-odd tons of roughage to the acre per annum with a degree of certainty not attained by any other, and this readily eaten by all classes of live stock, is not to be disregarded as an important farm crop even if it has been looked upon as something of a nuisance in the past.

PRICKLY PEAR COMPARED WITH SORGHUM.

Upon another page it has been shown that 22½ tons of prickly pear can be grown each year upon the gravelly-black-waxy soils of the San Antonio region of Texas. The main hay crop upon the ranch where the experiments are conducted has always been sorghum, and since the experiments were started this has been placed in a silo. In the season of 1906 about 1 ton of silage was secured to the acre, and in 1907 about 2½ tons. These are estimates made in the silo.

In feeding tests upon the ranch in 1905 it was found that 6 pounds of prickly pear produced the same results in feeding dairy cattle as 1 pound of dry sorghum hay.^a If 1 ton of hay is assumed to be equivalent in feeding value to 3 tons of silage, then the hay production from sorghum has been on an average for the past two years only seven-twelfths of a ton to the acre per annum. This seven-twelfths of a ton of hay, assuming the relative value of sorghum hay to prickly pear to be as 6 to 1, is equivalent to only 3½ tons of pear. In other words, prickly pear has produced more than six times as much roughage during the past two years as sorghum. Of course, the yield of sorghum mentioned here is abnormally small, but seasons occur every now and then in this region when crops are short,

^a See Bulletin No. 91, Bureau of Animal Industry, 1906, p. 4.

and while they may be assumed to be at the lowest point of production during these two years it is against these years of shortage that it is necessary to provide.

ENEMIES OF THE PRICKLY PEAR.

There are many fungus and insect enemies of the prickly pear, but only one insect and one fungus need be considered in this place because the others have not thus far given cause for any apprehension.

The black-spot fungus (*Perisporium wrightii*) is first found as a soft, brownish area, usually more or less circular, on any portion of the joint. This soon becomes black and rotten, and later dries up when the ascogenous bodies appear upon the epidermis. Often there may be a dozen of these spots on a single joint, and these are approximately one-half to 1 inch in diameter usually and extend clear through the joint. When but one or two occur the joint may recover, the tissue healing up around the diseased portion, when the dried diseased tissue falls out, leaving a notch or a clear circular opening through the joint. When the diseased spots are numerous, the plants are very much impoverished and the joints often drop off, the healing in this case occurring at the union between them.

Fortunately this disease appears less prevalent upon plants under cultivation. In February, 1905, when the first plantings were made, one row, 208 feet long, was planted to very badly diseased pear in order to study the behavior of the disease. There are at present some diseased plants upon this row, and many of the cuttings failed to grow, but the vast majority of the plants have overcome the disease quite perfectly. It is much more common on some varieties than on others, and the badly diseased material which was planted was discovered later to be of a different variety from that which it is recommended should be planted in the vicinity San Antonio. The typical form of *Opuntia lindheimeri* which is recommended is much less subject to this disease than some of the other native forms. It is a common disease in many species of prickly pear throughout the pear region from Texas to the city of Mexico.

The only practical remedy is to feed the diseased plants and propagate from healthy stock only. At the present time it looks as though this method of handling would reduce the injury to a minimum. The cultivated area referred to, except where diseased pear was planted, is quite free from disease now. The stock was carefully selected, however, and there appears to be no disease on either the cultivated or uncultivated areas.

The red spider (*Tetranychus opuntiae*), on the contrary, is more serious upon cultivated than upon uncultivated land. These minute

animals work around the areoles of spines and spicules first and gradually cover the entire surface of the joint. After they have worked on the pear, a yellowish or brownish dead callus forms over the entire surface. This cracks in places and there is often a considerable exudation of mucilage, which, although white at first, finally turns black. The plants are very much disfigured by this mite, but it can not be stated at present just how much real injury is done, for no plants have been observed which have been killed by it.

It may be difficult for the uninitiated to recognize what the trouble with the plants really is, but after seeing it or having it pointed out it can not be overlooked, for the diseased condition is very characteristic. It is not so easy to find the mites, however, because they are very small and at times nearly, if not quite, absent.

Just what their habits are during the season has not been worked out. It is certain that they were abundant in March, 1907, and less abundant in the autumn of the same year.

The Mexicans are very familiar with this diseased condition, but so far as known have not interpreted the cause. Attention has been called to it several times by Mexican ranchers, who deplored its presence and expressed the opinion that it might in time entirely destroy such forms as nopal amarillo, naranchado, chaveño, and certain forms of joconoxtle. While these fears express extreme views, there is no doubt that the red spider is a pest to be reckoned with. However, in Mexico, as in the United States, the greatest injury is done when plants are close together or growing intermingled with other shrubbery. This crowding together of the plants is probably the cause of the large numbers of mites which developed in our cultivated experimental area.

Experience is altogether too limited yet to permit much, if anything, to be said with any certainty about this injurious insect. A few observations, however, may be of interest. These, concisely tabulated, are as follows:

(1) The disease occasioned by the red spider has long been known, but its cause has only recently been determined.

(2) It has never been alarmingly abundant upon the uncultivated pear in southern Texas.

(3) At the end of the second year a few red spiders appeared in our plantation.

(4) During the third season these mites multiplied rapidly and did considerable injury to the older plantings.

(5) All plants harvested in any manner whatsoever in the spring of 1907 were uninjured by the red spider during the season, although some of them were badly infested when harvested.

(6) No red spiders were found during the season on plantings made in the spring of 1907.

(7) The red spider has been abundant upon thick plantings only, and no injury has been done any of the plants except the natives thus far.

(8) Red spiders are injurious only part of the year. In 1907 they were abundant in March.

(9) Heavy rain washes the red spiders off and they do not appear to regain possession for some time, but just how long has not been determined.

(10) Prickly pear having red spiders on it is eaten as readily by live stock as that which is not affected.

The above observations indicate that the red spider can be kept in check by feeding such areas as are affected as they appear. The fact that the crowding together of the plants seems to increase the spread of the red spiders and the injury done may influence the method of planting.

Another malady which is of very common occurrence can probably be discussed here as well as elsewhere, because it is commonly looked upon as a disease. This occurs some time in the spring of every year at San Antonio. It is a condition in which the new joints of the plant drop off when about half grown. The recovery from its effects is very rapid, but of course the growth which drops off is lost.

To illustrate the extent of this malady, a single case in which a quantitative estimate was made can be mentioned. About the middle of May, 1905, a large plant harvested during the winter of 1903-4 had just recovered from the effects of this malady. It had made a splendid growth the previous season and had started vigorously again when the joints began to drop off. At the time referred to most of the fallen joints were completely dried. Fifty-two of them were lying at the base of the plant, while eleven more were partially injured. In spite of this, the plant had completely recovered and was then supporting, besides the eleven somewhat injured joints still clinging to it, fifty-eight perfectly sound and normal ones. What proportion of the latter started after the falling of the first crop of joints can not be stated, but probably nearly all of them. This was a large, vigorous plant (second growth) from an old stump harvested several times, and probably represents an extreme case, but it is not uncommon for one-half to two-thirds of the first crop of joints to be lost in this way at San Antonio.

The exact cause of this particular phenomenon has not been demonstrated, but it appears to be due to neither fungous nor insect enemy, but, on the contrary, to be purely climatic. Observations seem to indicate that the falling of the joints takes place some time

after a cold and usually a moist spell of weather which occurs when the joints are about half grown and while they are thin and leathery, before they have begun to swell out into the normal shape of the mature joint.

In 1907 this malady was at its height about April 27. At this time nearly all the season's growth on many species was destroyed, and in some none remained. In others about half fell off, while a very few varieties were uninjured. The native *Opuntia lindheimeri* was not much affected; possibly one-eighth of its joints were injured, but not more than this. All varieties recovered speedily, putting out new joints in a short time. No injury was done to the previous year's growth.

While often a large part of the growth of a month or so in the spring is lost in this way, no apprehension is felt regarding the matter in respect to the yield. In fact, the yields which are reported elsewhere in this paper have been produced each year in spite of this malady.

SUMMARY.

These experiments in planting prickly pear as a farm crop have been conducted in a region having a rainfall varying from 15 $\frac{1}{8}$ inches to 40 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches a year, the average for the past eighteen years being 28 $\frac{3}{8}$ inches, but this rainfall is very unevenly distributed.

The absolute minimum temperature for the locality is 4° F., but this is exceptionally low, having occurred but once in eighteen years. During the ten years ended in 1903 there was only one year which had seven days with a minimum below 22° F., two years had none lower than 22° F., while the others had from one to six days during the year with a minimum temperature lower than 22° F.

The plants are most advantageously grown from single-joint cuttings, which are easily prepared by cutting up all of a full-grown plant into single joints with a spud or spade.

Plants should be established about 2 feet apart in 6-foot rows.

When the ground is moist and well prepared, cuttings can be distributed on the surface of the ground. When these conditions are not met the cuttings should be placed in a furrow and partially covered with another furrow. With care a sulky cultivator can be used for covering the joints.

Planting may be done at any time of the year except during the hottest and driest part of summer.

Cultivation should be shallow and sufficiently frequent to keep down weeds and prevent excessive baking of the soil.

Plants set in February can be harvested at any time of the year after twenty to twenty-four months.

It is believed that it will be found advantageous in harvesting to singe the standing plants and then cut them down to be grazed. However, good results have been obtained without cutting. It is possible to singe after cutting, but it is a little more difficult and will probably be attended with more waste.

It will be advantageous in harvesting to leave a stump of two to four joints rather than to harvest too closely.

Those forms which are most vigorous and most free from disease should be selected for stock to plant. In the vicinity of San Antonio this is the typical form of *Opuntia lindheimeri*.

The experimental plantation cost nearly \$9 an acre, including all expenses, beginning with the breaking of the raw prairie and ending with the cuttings properly placed. With good labor and proper management this expense, it is believed, could be reduced to \$6 or \$7 an acre. Even \$9 per acre is low for a plantation that does not require renewing for fifteen or twenty years.

The spineless forms thus far grown (about twenty varieties) are practically useless under present conditions in Texas except for breeding purposes.

A conservative estimate of the annual production of prickly pear under cultivation is 22½ tons, or enough roughage for one bovine animal for a year from each acre of ground. This is to be harvested biennially.

Cattle, sheep, goats, swine, and even chickens will eat the crop readily at any time of the year.

Eight times as much growth of prickly pear has been secured under cultivation as was obtained without cultivation in ungrazed pastures.

More than six times as much roughage (actual feeding value) has been secured during the past two years from prickly pear as from sorghum.

One fungous and one insect enemy of prickly pear of some importance are found, both of which may be controlled either by selection of stock or by methods of harvesting, or by both combined.

The diseased condition known as dropping of joints is believed to be purely climatical. This, while costing a month's growth in the spring, is not looked upon with any apprehension. The yields given in this paper have been secured in spite of this injury.

PLATES.

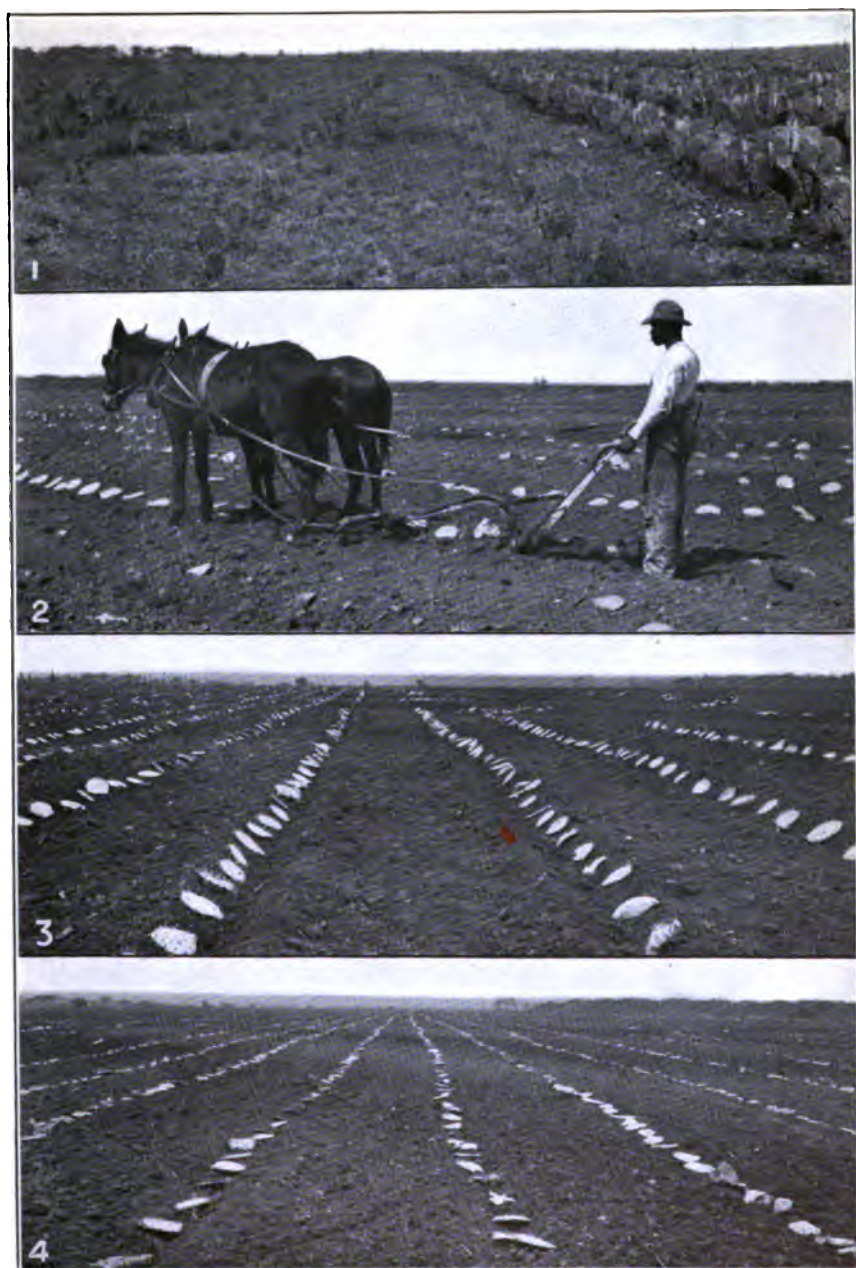
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33

DESCRIPTION OF PLATES.

PLATE I.—Prickly pear experiments. Fig. 1.—Cultivated and uncultivated prickly pear, showing relative growths. The first two rows cultivated and the first two rows uncultivated were planted in the same way and at the same time. The vegetation in the uncultivated area consists of native grasses and the broom weed (*Amphecharis dracunculoides*). Fig. 2.—Covering the cuttings with a plow. Covered in this way they usually stand at an angle of about 45 degrees. Fig. 3.—Cuttings distributed in the furrow ready to be covered. When covered with a plow they stand at about the angle shown, but if a sulky cultivator is used to cover them they can be arranged nearly upright. In the distance will be seen piles of cuttings ready to be distributed. Fig. 4.—Cuttings distributed on the surface of the ground. These are not to be covered, but will grow readily in this position. This method of planting is to be recommended when the ground is thoroughly prepared and sufficiently moist.

PLATE II.—Prickly pear experiments. Fig. 1.—Cattle grazing singed prickly pear on the experimental plantation, March, 1907. Fig. 2.—Singeing 2-year-old pear upon the experimental plantation in March, 1907. Fig. 3.—Uncultivated plantation 20 years old upon the Poor ranch, at San Antonio, Tex. This plantation has been repeatedly harvested but never cultivated. Fig. 4.—Cultivated prickly pear 2 years old upon the experimental plantation. Compare the appearance of the plants with the same variety shown in figure 3.



PRICKLY PEAR EXPERIMENTS.

FIG. 1.—CULTIVATED AND UNCULTIVATED PRICKLY PEAR. FIG. 2.—COVERING CUTTINGS WITH A PLOW. FIG. 3.—CUTTINGS DISTRIBUTED IN FURROW READY TO BE COVERED. FIG. 4.—CUTTINGS DISTRIBUTED ON THE SURFACE OF THE GROUND, NOT TO BE COVERED.



PRICKLY PEAR EXPERIMENTS.

**FIG. 1.—CATTLE GRAZING SINGED PRICKLY PEAR. FIG. 2.—SINGING PRICKLY PEAR.
FIG. 3.—UNCULTIVATED PLANTATION TWENTY YEARS OLD. FIG. 4.—CULTIVATED
PRICKLY PEAR TWO YEARS OLD.**

INDEX.

	Page.
Areoles, relation to propagation.....	11, 14
Beef, baby, use of prickly pear in production.....	26
Breeding hardy spineless varieties, possibilities.....	18, 21
Callus, cuttings.....	11
Cattle, daily and annual consumption of prickly pear, estimates.....	8, 22, 23, 24
Chaveño, injury by red spiders.....	20
Chickens, feeding on prickly pear.....	27
Climate, prickly pear requirements.....	9-10
Cold, effect on prickly pear.....	10
Cost of planting.....	19-20, 32
Cows, ration of prickly pear.....	8, 22, 23, 24
Cultivation.....	15-16
effects compared with noncultivation.....	24-26
first attempt.....	23
Cuttings, preparation and handling.....	10-12
Dairy pastures, availability of prickly pear.....	8
use and adaptation of prickly pear.....	26
Enemies of prickly pear.....	28-31
Experimental planting, 1907, methods employed, etc.....	11, 12, 13-14, 17, 18, 19, 20, 23-24
Feed yield to the acre of cultivated prickly pear, estimates.....	22-24
Fence requirements of spineless varieties.....	21
Flavor, prickly pear, relation to use by stock.....	26, 27
Freezing fatal to prickly pear, Texas.....	10
Fruit, time of production.....	16
Fungus, black-spot, description and remedy.....	28
Goats, feeding on prickly pear.....	7, 27
Grass, effect on growth of prickly pear.....	25
Greenhouse propagation, decay of cuttings, etc.....	11
Harvesting, time and methods.....	16-18, 32
Hedges, use of prickly pear.....	7
Hogs, feeding on prickly pear.....	27
Implements for cutting, handling, and planting prickly pear.....	11, 13, 31
Introduction to bulletin.....	7-8
Joconoxtle, injury by red spiders.....	29
Joint-dropping disease, cause and effects.....	30-31, 32
Labor, negro and Mexican.....	19
Mexico, method of planting prickly pear, etc.....	12
Mites, red spiders injurious to prickly pear.....	13, 28-30
Naranchado, injury by red spiders.....	29
Nopal amarillo, injury by red spiders.....	29

	Page.
Opuntia lindheimeri, description, characteristics, and recommendations	19,
	23, 26, 28, 32
freedom from disease	28, 31
spiniess, increased under cultivation	28
Pear, prickly, climatic requirements	8-10
cultivation	15-16
and use, historical notes	7
first attempt	23
fungous and insect enemies	28-31
feed produced	22-24
growth, rate	16
propagation and harvesting methods	10-18
spineless species, advantages and disadvantages	20-22
spiny species, advantages	22
uses	26-27
yield and value, comparison with sorghum	27-28
under cultivation	22-26
young growth distasteful to animals	26
Perisporium wrightii, description and remedy	28
Plantation, renewal	15
Planting, cost	12-14, 31
methods	12-14, 31
season	14-15
Plants, selection for propagation	12
setting, distance apart	13, 31
Plates, description	34
Poor, D. M., planting of prickly pear	15
Precipitation, San Antonio, Tex., monthly totals, 1897-1906	8-9, 31
Prickly pear. See Pear, prickly.	
Propagation, areole as a factor	11, 14
distance between plants	13, 31
methods and implements	10-14, 31
suggestions for insuring growth of plants	14
varieties recommended	18
Rabbits injurious, especially to spineless varieties	21
Rainfall, San Antonio, Tex., monthly totals, 1897-1906	8-9, 31
Ration, daily, prickly pear for cattle	8, 22, 23, 24
Red spiders injurious to prickly pear	13, 28-30
Rodents injurious, especially to spineless varieties	21
Roughage, value of drought-resistant crop	8
San Antonio, Tex., climatic conditions	8-10, 31
pastures, depletion of prickly pear	8
Season for planting	14, 31
Setting plants in field, two methods	12-14, 31
Sheep, feeding on prickly pear	7, 27
Singeing process, directions	16-18, 32
Sorghum, yield compared with prickly pear	27
Spacing plants, proper distance	13, 31
Spiders, red, injurious	13, 28-30
Spineless varieties, advantages and disadvantages	20-22
hardy, breeding possibilities	18, 21
importations, experimental planting	20
not hardy, useless in Texas	20, 32

	Page.
Spines, development, effect of cultivation.....	26
hindrance to propagation of plant.....	14
Spiny varieties, advantages and disadvantages.....	20-22
Summary of bulletin.....	31-32
Swine, feeding on prickly pear.....	27
Temperature, average, San Antonio, Tex., 1888-1906.....	9-10, 31
Tetranychus opuntiae, injuries, observations.....	28-30
Texas, climatic conditions.....	8-10
forage cultivation, space between plants.....	13
land sales and holdings.....	7-8
need of drought-resistant crop for roughage.....	8
varieties preferred.....	19
Varieties, care in selection.....	18-32
preferred forms.....	19
Yield to the acre under cultivation, estimates.....	16, 22-24

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY—BULLETIN NO. 125.

B. T. GALLOWAY, *Chief of Bureau.*

DRY-LAND OLIVE CULTURE IN NORTHERN AFRICA.

BY

THOMAS H. KEARNEY,

PHYSIOLOGIST IN CHARGE OF ALKALI AND DROUGHT RESISTANT
PLANT-BREEDING INVESTIGATIONS.

ISSUED APRIL 11, 1908.



WASHINGTON:

GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.

1908.

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[Continued on page 3 of cover.]



HARVESTING CHEMLALY OLIVES IN A DRY-LAND ORCHARD AT SFAX.

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.
BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY—BULLETIN NO. 125.
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ALKALI AND DROUGHT RESISTANT PLANT BREEDING INVESTIGATIONS.

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY,
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF,
Washington, D. C., January 5, 1908.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith and to recommend for publication as Bulletin No. 125 of the series of this Bureau the accompanying manuscript, entitled "Dry-Land Olive Culture in Northern Africa."

The culture of the olive without irrigation in a region where the average yearly rainfall is only 9.3 inches is the most highly successful example of dry-farming methods applied to a tree crop of which we have any knowledge. It has long passed the experimental stage, having been carried on in southern Tunis with the methods now in use for at least fifty years and having been developed on a vastly more extensive scale in the same region during the early centuries of the Christian era.

The description here given of the methods and of the type of tree adapted to this system of culture will be of special interest to that portion of the southwestern United States where olive culture is possible. But it also concerns arid and semiarid regions outside of the olive zone where arboriculture, based upon other crops, seems destined to become an important feature in dry-land agriculture. The present paper should stimulate the search for useful trees capable of being grown profitably under dry-farming conditions.

In the course of an expedition to Tunis for the Office of Seed and Plant Introduction and Distribution, the primary object of which was to obtain promising varieties of dates for trial in the southwestern United States, Mr. Kearney spent several weeks in the dry-land olive-growing districts studying the methods used and the conditions under which the culture is there carried on. This was done at the suggestion of Mr. W. T. Swingle, of this Bureau, who has charge of investigations in dry-land arboriculture.

The drought-resistant variety of the olive that is grown in Tunis has been introduced with a view to establishing dry-land olive culture in the United States. Investigations along this line will be carried

on in cooperation between the offices of Plant Life History Investigations and of Alkali and Drought Resistant Plant Breeding Investigations.

Acknowledgment is here made of the valuable assistance rendered Mr. Kearney in the course of his investigations by the Tunisian authorities and by private individuals interested in olive culture. Mention should be made of the courtesies extended by M. Fidelle, late controleur civil at Sfax; M. Minangoin, inspector of agriculture in the Direction of Agriculture and Commerce at Tunis; Mr. Leonardi, British vice-consul at Sfax; M. Robert, president of the chamber of commerce at Susa; and MM. Louis Fidelle and A. Chatel, olive growers at Sfax.

The illustrations which accompany this paper are considered essential to a full understanding of the text.

Respectfully,

B. T. GALLOWAY,
Chief of Bureau.

HON. JAMES WILSON,
Secretary of Agriculture.

CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction	7
Importance of dry-land arboriculture in ancient Africa	8
Dry-land olive culture in modern Tunis	12
General characteristics of the Sfax region	14
Climate	14
Topography and soils	17
Topography and natural vegetation	17
Soils	17
The olive orchards of Sfax	19
The variety grown	19
Propagation	20
Clearing the land	21
Planting	22
Distance between the trees	22
Time and method of planting	23
Watering the young trees	24
Tillage	25
Manuring	28
Pruning	28
Harvesting	30
Yields obtained	31
Relation of rainfall to yields	32
Labor	34
Utilization of the run-off in olive culture in other parts of Tunis	36
Summary	38
Description of plates	42
Index	43

ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATES.

	Page.
PLATE I. Harvesting Chemlaly olives in a dry-land orchard at Sfax. Frontispiece.	
II. General view of the older dry-land olive orchards near Sfax-----	42
III. A fruit-bearing twig of the Chemlaly olive-----	42
IV. Fig. 1. Recently planted dry-land olive orchards near Sfax, showing the careful alignment and wide spacing of the trees.	
Fig. 2.—The interior of a Sfax olive orchard, showing wide planting, clean cultivation, and careful pruning-----	42

TEXT FIGURES.

FIG. 1. Map of Tunis, showing the probable extent of the dry-land arboricultural region in ancient times and the area now occupied by dry-land olive orchards-----	9
2. An olive tree, probably several centuries old, growing without irrigation in Algeria-----	11
3. Diagram showing construction of cisterns at Sfax-----	16
4. Diagram showing method of planting olive truncheons at Sfax--	23
5. The "maacha," the tool used by the Arabs in exterminating Bermuda grass and other weeds-----	26
6. Diagram illustrating a method of conducting surface water to the base of an olive tree-----	27
7. Sketch showing the proper form to give in pruning a three-year-old olive tree-----	29
8. The tree shown in figure 7 as pruned when four years old-----	29
9. The tree shown in figures 7 and 8 as it appears when five years old -----	30
10. Chart showing the rainfall and the production of olive oil at Sfax from 1895 to 1905-----	33

DRY-LAND OLIVE CULTURE IN NORTHERN AFRICA.

INTRODUCTION.

A great awakening to the possibilities of dry-land agriculture has recently taken place in the western United States. Land is being rapidly taken up and brought under the plow, largely by eastern farmers, in regions where the average yearly rainfall does not exceed 18 inches and where water is not available for irrigation. The unusually heavy rainfall of the past few seasons has allowed many of the newcomers to obtain good crops of small grain and forage under these conditions; but the recent recruit to "dry farming" must not lose sight of the fact that such periods of unusually heavy rainfall are sure to be followed sooner or later by periods of drought, when the plants ordinarily grown in humid regions will give him but uncertain results. To insure against disaster he should be on the lookout for drought-resisting varieties of the crop plants he is familiar with or else for new crop plants adapted to arid conditions.

No class of plants is more resistant to drought than certain trees and shrubs, some of which are extremely useful in countries having a climate similar to that of the Great Plains and Great Basin regions of the United States. Arboriculture (tree culture) is one of the safest and most promising lines along which dry-land agriculture can develop. Experience in various parts of the Old World has shown that drought-resisting trees will live and will often produce a crop in years when no shallow-rooted annual crop will return the seed sown.

The most highly developed and successful example of dry-land arboriculture known to the writer is based on the olive, a tree that is peculiarly well fitted for growing under arid conditions. Its leaves are protected against excessive loss of water by the thick skin or cuticle of the upper surface and by the scurf of scale-like hairs with which the under side is covered. Its root system is of such a nature as to permit it to grow without irrigation in regions where the rainfall is scanty and the ground water is practically out of

reach. The roots of the olive run for long distances comparatively close to the surface of the soil, and are thus able to take up the moisture that penetrates a few inches into the ground after every moderate rainfall. The unusual hardness of this tree is shown by the fact that in many localities in northern Africa where it was once planted it has persisted for centuries without receiving any attention, often running wild and mingling with the native trees and shrubs on the driest hillsides.

Fifteen hundred years ago southern Tunis was covered with thriving olive orchards, but these gradually disappeared after the country was conquered by the Arabs, so that at the beginning of the last century olive culture had almost died out in that region. A good beginning has since been made in reestablishing it, and to-day the dry-land orchards of southeastern Tunis are the wonder and admiration of olive growers the world over.

A description of this model arboriculture, of the climatic and soil conditions under which it is carried on, and of the methods used and the results obtained can hardly fail to interest those who are concerned in dry-land agriculture. It is true that in the United States the olive can be a profitable crop only in the warmer parts of the arid and semiarid districts, i. e., in southern and western Texas, in southern Arizona, and in California. But there are other drought-resistant trees that are better able to withstand cold and can therefore be grown to advantage farther north. Some of these, although not yet well known in the United States, are of great importance in various parts of the world, being grown either for their fruit, for forage, or for timber and fuel. In the drier parts of Europe and Asia there are varieties of our common orchard trees that would probably give better results under dry farming conditions than the varieties ordinarily grown in the humid parts of the United States or under irrigation in the West. An account of dry-land olive culture in Tunis should therefore be useful even outside the olive zone, as it will direct attention to the type of tree and the methods of culture that are likely to give the best results.

IMPORTANCE OF DRY-LAND ARBORICULTURE IN ANCIENT AFRICA.

Southern Tunis is to-day an arid, treeless waste, almost a desert, covered with a sparse growth of thorny bushes and coarse bunch-grasses. There are no streams of considerable size to furnish water for irrigation, and the average yearly rainfall is small, ranging from 8 to 14 inches. In many places a fair crop of wheat or barley can be expected only once in three or four years. This region is now uninhabited, save by a few thousand Bedouins, who wander from

place to place in search of pasturage for their sheep and goats. Except on the coast and at a few points near the mountains along the northern and western borders of the district there are no large towns and hardly any permanent villages. The desolation is almost everywhere complete.

Yet during the third to the seventh century of the Christian era this whole district (fig. 1), from the seacoast westward into what is now eastern Algeria, was thickly dotted with thriving villages and farms. In an area not exceeding 20,000 square miles—15,000 within the boundaries of modern Tunis and perhaps 5,000 in Algeria—there were at least a dozen cities of 10,000 to 30,000 inhabitants. A network of splendid paved roads, such as the Romans knew so well how to build, connected these cities with each other and with those of the seacoast. While in the height of its prosperity, that part of the region belonging to what we now call

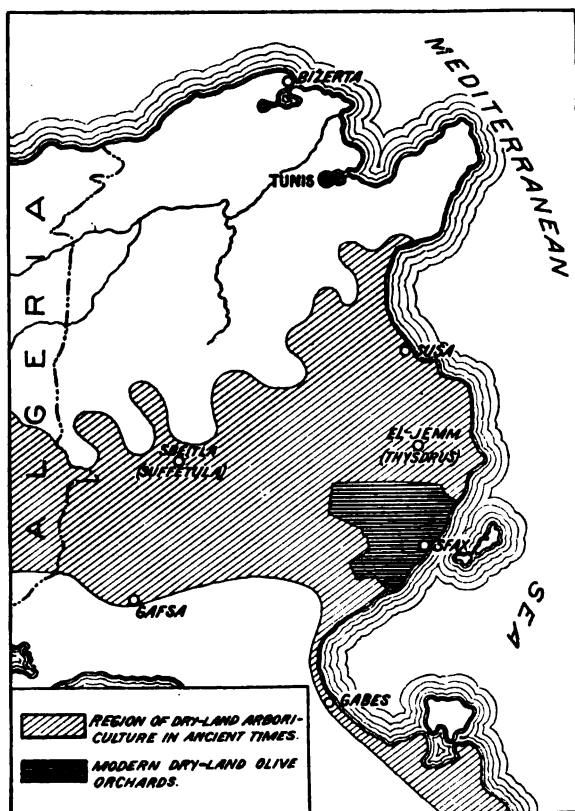


FIG. 1.—Map of Tunis,^a showing the probable extent of the dry-land arboricultural region in ancient times and the area now occupied by dry-land olive orchards. (After Bourde.)

^a The northeastern portion of the lightly shaded area, at least near the seacoast, is not typical of the dry-land arboricultural region, the yearly rainfall at Susa averaging 16.6 inches. In the southeastern portion (below Gabes) it is unlikely that the dry-land orchards extended as far from the coast as is indicated on the map. In the absence of exact data for correction, however, it seems best to follow the limits of the region as traced by Bourde (*Rapport sur les Cultures Fruitières*, etc., Tunis, 1890).

Tunis, of which it formed about one-third, had a population of at least 1,500,000, or about the present population of the whole of Tunis.

The flourishing state of this part of Africa in former times is abundantly attested, not only by the statements of Arab writers who saw the country before it had completely relapsed into its present desolation, but by the ruins that are strewn over it in such numbers that one can hardly ride for half a mile without encountering some fragment of an ancient building, or cistern, or reservoir. The public buildings of the cities had a degree of architectural merit which shows that the ancient inhabitants enjoyed not merely prosperity, but wealth and luxury. The inscriptions prove that some of the finest of these structures were built not by the government or the municipality but by private citizens inspired by local pride, which was kept alive by the keen rivalry that existed among the towns of Roman Africa.

We need mention only two examples of the splendid development of this country in Roman times. In an area of 100 square miles around the ancient city of Suffetula (fig. 1) there have been found the remains of 3 cities, 15 towns, and 45 small villages, besides almost innumerable scattered farm buildings. Near the seacoast, on the site of the ancient city of Thysdrus (fig. 1), stands a great amphitheater which is second in size only to the Colosseum at Rome and is estimated to have seated 60,000 people. But the Roman city which it adorned has given place to a squalid Arab village huddled under the walls of the amphitheater, while around it in every direction stretches a bare, uncultivated plain. How can we account for the existence of the 60,000 souls that crowded the amphitheater of Thysdrus on festival days to view the sports of the arena? How did the teeming population of Suffetula support itself and accumulate wealth sufficient to build the beautiful marble temples and baths and theaters that adorned the city in the early centuries of the Christian era?

All the evidence goes to show that the climate has not changed materially and that the rainfall has not diminished since Roman times. We have no reason to believe that the country was formerly better watered or that agriculture based upon irrigation could ever have reached a high development in that part of Africa. The remains of innumerable cisterns lined with masonry or concrete—more than 400 have been counted in one small district near Sfax alone—prove that the inhabitants had to depend for domestic purposes upon stored rain water. Some of the larger cities had public cisterns of gigantic size. Even near the mountains it was necessary to utilize every spring and to build long aqueducts to carry water to the cities and towns. There could have been little to spare for agricultural purposes, except, perhaps, to irrigate the gardens immediately around the towns.

The gnarled old olive trees that are found here and there over the country (fig. 2), often standing in straight rows just as they were planted centuries ago,^a and the almost innumerable ruins of oil mills answer our questions. The remains of more than a thousand oil mills are said to exist in the hundred square miles around Suffetula alone. They were built of stone and were often of imposing size. In many places the stone basins in which the fruit was crushed and the perforated stone pillars that supported the bar of the press are still to be seen.

If we turn to the Roman and Arabic historians and geographers, we find abundant evidence that the wealth of this part of Africa was based upon dry-land tree culture on a vast scale.^b The olive was undoubtedly the chief source of these riches, although other



FIG. 2.—An olive tree, probably several centuries old, growing without irrigation in Algeria.

more or less drought-resistant trees, such as the pistache, fig, and almond, doubtless played an important part. It has been calculated that the olive orchards of southern Tunis covered 2,500,000 acres when the Arabs conquered the country, about 700 A. D. Ancient Rome, which consumed an enormous quantity of olive oil, drew its supply largely from this region. Under the Cæsars the province of Africa, which comprised the same territory as modern Tunis, was taxed 300,000 gallons yearly for the benefit of the capital.^c So important

^a Olive trees several hundred years old are frequently met with in Algeria and Tunis. In many places the existing trees are offshoots that have sprung up from the roots of older ones, the original trunk having long since disappeared.

^b This view was first advanced in a convincing form, with an admirable summing up of the historical and archaeological evidence, by P. Bourde, at one time Director of Agriculture in Tunis, in a little pamphlet entitled "Rapport sur les Cultures Fruitières et en Particulier sur la Culture de l'Olivier dans le Centre de la Tunisie." (Report on Fruit Culture and Especially Olive Culture in Central Tunis.) Tunis, 1892; 2d edition, 1899.

^c Graham, Alexander. Roman Africa, London, 1902, p. 57.

was this article in the ancient commerce of the country that, as the local tradition has it, one of the cities near the eastern coast built a conduit solely for the purpose of transporting oil to its seaport.

The Arab invaders, being a pastoral and not an agricultural people, are said to have wantonly destroyed the olive orchards in order to create pastures for their flocks. More probably the orchards gradually died out from neglect, large numbers of the original inhabitants of the country having been killed or driven from their farms by the invaders, who neither knew nor cared anything about tree culture. During the centuries that followed, the country was in too turbulent a state to make a restoration of the olive orchards possible. Moreover, the decline of Rome and the destruction of commerce on the Mediterranean put an end to the foreign trade in oil and left Tunis without a market for its surplus production.

However this may be, only mere fragments of this magnificent forest of olives remain to-day in southern Tunis. In the northern part of the country, where the rainfall is much greater and the trees can exist without the use of special cultural methods to conserve moisture in the soil, olive growing has continued without interruption down to the present time.

DRY-LAND OLIVE CULTURE IN MODERN TUNIS.

At a few points along the coast in central and southern Tunis the orchards never disappeared entirely, and within the last century a notable effort has been made to reestablish the ancient condition of things in the neighborhood of Sfax, a thriving seaport on the eastern coast (fig. 1). The work was begun by the inhabitants on their own initiative, hesitatingly and inefficiently at first. About 1840 the system of planting and of tillage now in use was introduced or revived^a by one of the more intelligent natives, and from that time the progress was rapid. When the French occupied Sfax in 1881 the orchards already covered 45,000 acres, and up to that time Europeans had had no part in the work.

During the last twenty years most of the new orchards have been created by French capitalists, although native laborers have been almost exclusively employed and the cultural methods are essentially those in use before the country was occupied by Europeans. Be-

^a In all probability the system of wide spacing of the trees and thorough tillage is not a recent invention, but was in use by the Romans more than 1,500 years ago. These practices, or at least the tradition of them, doubtless continued to exist in the region through all the centuries of the Arab domination, to be brought once more into general use during the past century.

tween 1892 and 1904 French stock companies and individual colonists purchased from the Tunisian government 200,000 acres of public land and planted more than one and a half million olive trees, besides a large number of almonds. These lands are sold by the government at the rate of 75 cents an acre, one-half of the price being payable in advance and the remainder within four years, on condition that the purchaser shall put the land into a tree crop before the end of that time. This is in pursuance of the policy of the government to encourage in every possible way the restoration of the olive orchards that made the country prosperous in ancient times.

At present the orchards extend without interruption to an average distance of 20 to 25 miles from Sfax, while some of the outlying plantations are as much as 40 miles distant from the town. Those within a radius of 12 miles from Sfax, which are now in full bearing, belong almost exclusively to natives, while beyond them are the plantations of young trees more recently established by French colonists. These newer orchards are in nearly all cases very large, some of them containing more than 25,000 trees. The entire area around Sfax occupied by dry-land olive orchards was estimated in 1900 to be 475,000 acres, containing 3,333,000 trees. During the ten years from 1896 to 1905 a yearly average of more than 1,000,000 gallons of oil was produced. The product of these orchards is sufficient to maintain about two dozen oil mills in the town of Sfax, operated by Europeans and equipped with modern machinery, besides twice as many native mills, in which the power is furnished by animals.

This wide expanse of orchards is a most impressive sight. The best view of it (see Pl. IV, fig. 1) is to be had from the summit of a little hill about 10 miles northwest of Sfax to which all visitors are taken. The straight rows of trees, separated by broad bands of bare, reddish soil, stretch to the horizon in almost every direction. The whole face of the country is striped with gray-green and red. Probably nowhere else in the world has olive culture been so highly developed. The regularity of the planting is striking to anyone who is familiar with the haphazard way in which the trees are set out on hillsides in most parts of the Mediterranean region.^a The trees stand in perfectly straight lines and are 65 to 80 feet apart in each direction. They are carefully trimmed so as to have a symmetrical, square-topped spread of foliage and are remarkably uni-

^aThe jury for olive culture of the Congress held at Tunis in 1888, which was composed largely of French olive growers, agreed that the plantations at Sfax are "superb and leave far behind anything to be seen in Europe as to development of the trees and quantity of the fruit." At that time the orchards were still practically all in the hands of natives.

form in size and shape. Nothing else is grown among them after they begin to bear, and the cultivation is so clean that it is hard to find a blade of grass in the well-cared-for orchards.

This admirable culture is carried on without irrigation in a region where the rainfall averages only 9.3 inches and sometimes falls as low as 6 inches during several successive years. It is the most successful example of dry farming applied to a tree crop of which we have any knowledge.

In order to understand the cultural methods practiced, it is necessary first of all to know something of the physical conditions of the Sfax region.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SFAX REGION.

CLIMATE.

Sfax, like most localities in northern Africa, has many of the climatic peculiarities of the vast Sahara Desert, which practically reaches the sea near the border of Tripoli, 110 miles southeast of Sfax. For this reason the climate of the east coast of Tunis, even as far north as the city of Tunis (fig. 1) is much more desert-like than the coast of Algeria, which is separated from the Sahara by two ranges of mountains. At Sfax the chief points in which the climate approaches that of the desert are the small rainfall and the long, hot summers. Yet it is not a typical desert climate, for the neighborhood of the sea gives it a comparatively high relative humidity and smaller daily and seasonal ranges of temperature than those that characterize the Sahara itself.

Table I shows the average monthly temperatures at Sfax:

TABLE I.—*Monthly and annual average mean, mean maximum, and mean minimum temperatures at Sfax, in degrees Fahrenheit.*^a

Month.	Mean.	Mean of the maxima.	Mean of the minima.
	°F.	°F.	°F.
January.....	51.8	59.1	43.3
February.....	54.4	61.8	46.9
March.....	59.1	67.2	50.2
April.....	63.2	72.1	54.9
May.....	68.8	77.5	60.5
June.....	72.8	80.9	65.9
July.....	78.5	87.8	72.0
August.....	79.3	88.1	72.9
September.....	78.4	86.6	73.2
October.....	72.8	79.4	64.5
November.....	61.8	69.1	53.7
December.....	54.0	62.5	45.8
Annual mean.....	66.2	74.3	58.6

^a The monthly means for Sfax are based upon records covering a period that varies in length for different months from eight to seventeen years, but they have been corrected so as to agree with the sixteen-year means for each season (winter, spring, summer, and autumn) given by G. Gignestous (*Etude sur le Climat de la Tunisie*, Bul. Dir. Agric. et Com. Tunis, 1902 and 1903). The correction in most cases amounts to only about 1° F. and in no case exceeds 3°.

Most localities in the southwestern portion of the United States are characterized by a greater range of temperature than occurs at Sfax, having colder winters and warmer summers. At Tucson, Ariz., the monthly mean temperatures are much like those at Sfax, except for May, June, July, and August, when the temperatures are considerably higher at Tucson. The means of the maxima of the spring and summer months are much higher at Tucson than at Sfax, while the means of the minima are much lower at Tucson during the nine months from September to May. The yearly mean of the maxima is nearly 8 degrees higher, and the yearly mean of the minima is $6\frac{1}{2}$ degrees lower at Tucson than at Sfax.

San Antonio, Tex., corresponds closely with Sfax in the mean temperatures of all the months, except April, May, and June, when the monthly means are considerably higher at San Antonio. The monthly means of the maxima are uniformly somewhat higher at San Antonio, the difference being most marked for the months of April to July. The monthly means of the minima at San Antonio are slightly lower in autumn and winter but somewhat higher in spring and summer than at Sfax.

There is no evidence, however, that within wide limits temperature is a factor of very great importance in olive culture.

Table II shows the average monthly and annual precipitation at Sfax:

TABLE II.—Average monthly and annual precipitation at Sfax.^a

Month.	Precipitation.	Month.	Precipitation.
	<i>Inches.</i>		<i>Inches.</i>
January.....	0.97	August.....	0.04
February.....	1.17	September.....	0.78
March.....	0.70	October.....	1.17
April.....	1.25	November.....	1.21
May.....	0.58	December.....	1.36
June.....	0.08		
July.....	0.04	Total annual.....	9.35

^a Based upon a period of fifteen years (1886 to 1900). The above data are taken from G. Gineatous, *Les Pluies en Tunisie*, Dir. Gén. de l'Enseignm. Publ., Serv. Météorol., ed. 2, pp. 86, 87 (1901).

If we compare the rainfall of Sfax with that of localities in the southwestern United States, we find that San Diego and Fresno, Cal., Tucson, Ariz., and El Paso, Tex., have practically the same yearly total, while at San Antonio, Tex., the yearly total is about three times as great, and at St. George, Utah, only about two-thirds as great. In the distribution of the rainfall during the different months of the year, San Diego and Fresno most nearly resemble Sfax, while Tucson, El Paso, and San Antonio show a marked difference in their relatively heavy midsummer rainfall. Most of the precipitation at Sfax occurs in the autumn, winter, and early spring,

December being the month of greatest rainfall, with a second maximum, only slightly lower, in April. July and August are the driest months.

The total rainfall at Sfax varies greatly in different years. Thus, in 1890 it amounted to 17.4 inches, and in 1895 it was only 3.2 inches. During the seven years from 1898 to 1904 the total rainfall was only 41 inches; hence the yearly average was only 5.8 inches. The relation that apparently exists between the rainfall and the size of the olive crop is discussed farther on.

There are no perennial streams in the Sfax region. The inhabitants depend upon wells and cisterns for water for irrigating their gardens and newly set out olive trees as well as for household purposes. The wells vary greatly in depth. For instance, about 30 miles north of the town there is a well 220 feet deep, while only 3½

miles away there is a 33-foot well. The average depth is perhaps between 50 and 80 feet.

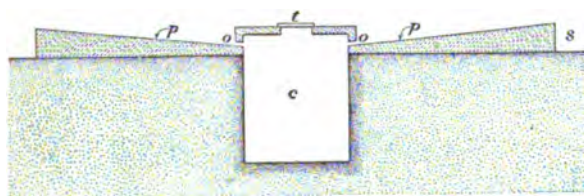


FIG. 3.—Diagram showing construction of cisterns at Sfax, being a section through two of the openings (o) in the concrete cover (t) by means of which water that falls upon the platform (p) enters the cistern (c); s is the surface of the soil.

lies between the town and the olive orchards, the roads are bordered by cisterns of a peculiar type (fig. 3). A concrete platform, often 40 or 50 feet square and about 2 feet high at the edge, slopes from all sides toward the center, the opening of which is protected by a concrete cover. Small holes in the sides of the cover allow the water that falls upon the platform to enter the cistern beneath. Water is drawn when needed through a hole in the top of the cover, which is protected by a movable lid. This type of cistern has been used in Tunis for two thousand years or more.

In years of unusually small rainfall, such as 1904, water becomes so scarce that 4 or 5 gallons (the capacity of the ordinary water jar used by the natives) are retailed for 2 cents. It has been necessary at times to import drinking water from Naples and to use sea water for washing clothes.

TOPOGRAPHY AND SOILS.

TOPOGRAPHY AND NATURAL VEGETATION.

The portion of southern Tunis in which dry-land olive culture reached its highest development in ancient times is that where Quaternary deposits form the surface covering. The district around Sfax that is now occupied by olive orchards is a slightly rolling plain of low elevation, extending from the coast toward the base of the high table-land that occupies central Tunis. In its natural condition it is a steppe, in many ways like the great plains east of the Rocky Mountains, and especially like parts of western Texas and eastern New Mexico. It bears a scattered vegetation, a conspicuous feature of which is the Christ thorn (*Zizyphus spina-christi*), a spreading thorny bush with most of the trunk underground, thus resembling the mesquite (*Prosopis juliflora*) as it grows in eastern New Mexico. Like the mesquite, the Christ thorn generally occupies the summits of small mounds, which it has probably helped to form by catching and holding wind-blown soil. While its stems are usually only 4 or 5 feet high above ground, its roots are said often to penetrate to a depth of 12 feet or more. The presence of this shrub makes the clearing of the land difficult and expensive. Sagebrush (a species of *Artemisia*) and coarse bunch-grass make up the bulk of the natural vegetation.

SOILS.

The soil that is considered most desirable for olive culture is bright red in color. It is generally of considerable depth, but at some places within 20 miles of Sfax hardpan is said to be encountered only 24 inches below the surface. To an average depth of 7 feet the soil appears to be generally rather uniform in texture, but below this strata of fine material alternate with layers of coarse sand and gravel. As regards water content, it is stated ^a that when the surface soil was air dry, at a depth of 8 inches the moisture content was found to be 6 per cent, at 20 inches 10 per cent, and at 40 inches 14 per cent. This would indicate a distribution of soil moisture to which only trees and deep-rooted perennials could adapt themselves. It is said ^b that even after several months without rain the soil at a depth of 8 inches contains enough moisture to stick together when squeezed in the hand. At the end of January, 1905, however, when heavy rains had followed a prolonged drought, the writer observed that while the

^a Bourde, P. Rapport sur les Cultures Fruitières * * * dans le Centre de la Tunisie, 2d edition, 1899, pp. 13, 14.

^b Bertainchand. Note Explicative sur la Carte Agronomique et Hydrologique * * * des Terres de la Région de Sfax, Paris, 1896, p. 16.

first 8 inches of the soil had been thoroughly moistened the next 16 to 24 inches were very dry and powdery.

As to texture, this soil when dry has the appearance of a sandy loam, with rather coarse particles. An average of the results of mechanical analyses by the chemist of the Tunisian government^a of 82 samples collected in every part of the Sfax region gives 80 per cent of "coarse sand" and 20 per cent of "fine material." Yet an apparently typical sample collected by the writer in an olive orchard about 5 miles from Sfax was found by the Bureau of Soils of the United States Department of Agriculture to contain a great deal of silt and clay, amounting together in the surface foot to 45 per cent of the whole and in the third foot to 23 per cent. The remaining 55 and 77 per cent, respectively, consisted mainly of "fine sand" and "very fine sand." The real state of the case appears to be that in the natural condition of the soil these fine particles are held together by lime or some other cementing material, so as to form particles that resemble grains of coarse sand. These become separated when the soil is shaken for a long time in water.^b

Table III shows the results of mechanical analyses made by the Bureau of Soils of the United States Department of Agriculture of soil samples from the Sfax olive orchards.

TABLE III.—*Mechanical analyses of soil samples from the olive orchards of Sfax.*

Locality.	Depth taken.	Fine gravel, 2 to 1 mm.	Coarse sand, 1 to 0.5 mm.	Medium sand, 0.5 to 0.25 mm.	Fine sand, 0.25 to 0.1 mm.	Very fine sand, 0.1 to 0.05 mm.	Silt, 0.05 to 0.005 mm.	Clay, 0.005 to 0 mm.
	<i>Inches.</i>	<i>P. ct.</i>	<i>P. ct.</i>	<i>P. ct.</i>	<i>P. ct.</i>	<i>P. ct.</i>	<i>P. ct.</i>	<i>P. ct.</i>
Olive orchard, Sfax.....	0 to 12	0.2	4.3	7.1	24.1	20.9	14.1	30.0
Do	13 to 24	.4	7.7	9.7	33.9	24.0	9.1	16.0
Do	25 to 36	.5	7.9	10.3	34.3	24.6	7.1	15.7
Do	0 to 12	.2	4.6	6.8	26.4	22.5	13.4	26.2
Olive orchard, 20 miles north of Sfax.....	(*)	.3	2.7	3.3	14.9	27.0	22.9	29.3

* Adhering to olive truncheons, probably about 12 inches.

Chemical analyses of a large number of samples of the Sfax olive soils by the chemist of the Tunisian government show them to be very rich in lime (calcium carbonate), of which there is an average of from 5 to 10 per cent. The potash content is also good, the average being 0.1 to 0.2 per cent. On the other hand, they are rather poor in nitrogen (0.03 to 0.05 per cent) and in phosphoric acid (0.04 to 0.05

^a Bertainchand, l. c.

^b In the French method of mechanical analysis of soils, much less water is used and the digestion is much more rapid than in the method followed by the Bureau of Soils; consequently by the former method the aggregates of fine particles are less likely to be broken up through the solution of the cementing material.

per cent). According to Trabut,^a a high lime content is a very favorable factor in growing olives for oil production, as olives produced in limestone regions are richer in oil and the oil is of better quality than where the soils are deficient in this component. It should be noted that while the nitrogen and phosphoric acid content of the Sfax soils would be considered low for most crops, the high yields and good quality of the oil produced at Sfax are sufficient evidence that the supply of these two elements of plant food must be amply sufficient for the requirements of the olive. This can perhaps be explained by the fact that the roots of this tree occupy so great an area of soil (one-seventh to one-tenth acre) that while the percentage of these elements to weight of soil is everywhere low the total amount available to the roots is actually rather high.

THE OLIVE ORCHARDS OF SFAX.

THE VARIETY GROWN.

The Sfax orchards contain only one oil-producing variety, the Chemlaly,^b to which probably at least 95 per cent of the trees belong, the rest being varieties with larger fruits used for pickling. The fruits of the Chemlaly are very small but are produced in great quantity (Plate III). They are exceedingly rich in oil, yielding 30 per cent in factories where modern presses are used and as high as 34½ per cent in extraction experiments made by the chemist of the Tunis government. These are unusually high percentages, but they are attributable, perhaps, more to the heat of the climate than to a peculiarity of the Chemlaly variety, for still farther south in Tunis the olives are even richer in oil. In the extraction experiments above referred to, olives grown in the celebrated oil-producing district of Bari in southern Italy yielded only 28.2 per cent. In European countries near the northern limit of olive production the fruit is said to yield only 13 per cent of oil.

Oil made from the Chemlaly variety is very pure and of excellent flavor. For commercial purposes, however, it has a serious defect in its high content of stearin, or fixed acid, which causes it to congeal at relatively high temperatures. This characteristic renders Sfax oils difficult to sell in northern Europe, and it is especially prejudicial to their use in preserving sardines, etc. It is not, however, an insuperable objection, since the excess of stearin can be removed at a relatively small expense.

^a Trabut, L. L'Olivier, Bul. 21, Service Bot., Gouvernm. Gén. Algérie, 1900, p. 43.

^b Five or six very different varieties, all known as Chemlaly, occur in Tunis. That grown at Sfax is commonly designated as the "Chemlali de Sfax."

Opinions differ as to whether the high stearin content of the Sfax olive oils is a peculiarity of the Chemlaly variety or is due to the character of the soils of Sfax. That it is not attributable to the climate seems certain, for oils made from olives grown in still hotter and drier parts of Tunis are said not to congeal more readily than do those from the northern part of the country. M. Bertainchand, the chief chemist of the Tunis government, holds the character of the soil to be responsible, the soils in which olives are grown in northern Tunis being generally heavier than those of Sfax. It should be noted, however, that oils produced in the oases on the northern edge of the Sahara, where the soils are sandier than at Sfax, resemble the oils of northern Tunis rather than those of Sfax in their percentages of fluid and fixed acids. Perhaps the low water content of the soil contributes to this peculiarity in the composition of Sfax oils, northern Tunis having a much higher rainfall and the oases being abundantly irrigated. The latest authority who has investigated this subject holds, however, that the percentage of stearin is essentially a characteristic of the variety rather than a direct result of the physical conditions.^a

Whether the large yields of fruit obtained at Sfax from the Chemlaly olive are an inherent characteristic of the variety or are due to the climate or the soil or the superior cultural methods used seems not to be known. All authorities agree, however, that this variety is exceptionally well adapted to growing without irrigation in a hot, dry climate. It has been suggested by Dr. L. Trabut, government botanist of Algeria, that the Chemlaly will probably be useful as a drought-resistant stock upon which to graft larger fruited varieties. It is, in fact, thus employed to some extent at Sfax, but its value for this purpose will probably be limited, since olives that are large enough to be commercially valuable for pickling can in all likelihood be produced only where abundant water is available.

PROPAGATION.

The Chemlaly olive is never grafted at Sfax but is grown on its own roots. It is always propagated by means of large truncheons—pieces of wood taken from the base of the trunk or of the largest roots—a method that seems to be peculiar to Tunis.^b These cuttings

^a See Marcille, in *Bul. Dir. Agric. et Com.*, Tunis, 1906, p. 516.

^b Dr. L. Trabut, the government botanist of Algeria, states that it is not practiced in Algeria. Prof. S. C. Mason, arboriculturist of the Bureau of Plant Industry, reports that the cottonwood (*Populus deltoides*) is sometimes propagated in western Kansas by means of "snags," or truncheons, pieces of wood with several buds obtained by cutting up the branches of this tree. They are of the thickness of a piece of stove wood and 1 or 2 feet long. They are sometimes set in deep furrows and the soil is then firmed in around them.

are obtained from the old neglected trees—relics of the ancient olive orchards—that are scattered over the country (see fig. 2). When such trees do not occur on the estate that is to be planted, the cuttings are purchased from natives who have them. Either the whole tree is uprooted and all the cuttings it can furnish are removed at once with a saw or else only two or three are taken off at a time. In the latter case the usual method is to cut with a hatchet about half way through the root that is selected to furnish the cutting, at two points 8 to 10 inches apart. A spade is then struck into the upper cleft and the root is split down the middle as far as the lower cleft, thus leaving unhurt the under half of the root from which the cutting has been removed. The wounds are carefully trimmed with a pruning knife. In this way the root which furnishes the cutting is left attached to the parent tree and continues its functions.

The truncheons thus obtained are generally 8 to 10 inches long and of very unequal thickness, although said to average 4 inches. The drier the weather and the soil at the time of planting the larger they should be. In no case should they weigh less than $2\frac{1}{2}$ pounds, and they are generally heavier, for the vigor of the tree for the first year or two, at least, depends largely upon the size of the truncheon from which it originates. They retain the bark and should have at least three eyes or buds. If they have roots attached, these are cut off and care is also taken to trim away all rotten wood. The best results are obtained with cuttings taken below the surface of the ground. When of the dimensions just described they will not be injured by exposure for two weeks to the sun and air, but if a longer interval elapses before they are planted they should be wrapped in straw or else buried in the ground until wanted.^a

CLEARING THE LAND.

The first step in establishing an olive orchard at Sfax is, of course, clearing the land of its native growth of grass and bushes. Where the deep-rooted thorny shrub known as Christ thorn occurs this is

^a Four dozen such cuttings were imported from Sfax by the Department of Agriculture in 1905. They were taken from the trees about February 15 and were covered with soil until the end of the month, when they were packed with wet straw in ventilated wooden boxes and shipped to New Lork, being watered at least once during the voyage. When unpacked at Washington on April 20, only one or two of them showed signs of life. When planted, however, hardly one failed to send up numerous shoots, which by October 15 had reached a height of 4 to 5 feet. They were sent to San Antonio, Tex., Tucson and Phoenix, Ariz., and several localities in California. In most cases they have made a good growth, and material for further experiments with this variety seems to be assured.

a troublesome and expensive operation, but otherwise a fairly deep plowing is generally effective. As a rule, the greatest difficulty in getting the land clean and keeping it so is due to the presence of Bermuda grass, the worst weed of the Sfax region. As irrigation is not practiced, except that the young trees are watered by hand during the first one or two summers after planting, it is not necessary to level the land. In the largest plantations it is the custom not to clear the entire surface before planting but merely strips about 12 feet wide, in the centers of which the rows of trees are to be set. These strips are broadened from year to year until the whole surface of the orchard has been freed from weeds and brush. Whenever possible, however, it is preferable to clear the entire area at the outset, since the unreclaimed portion harbors Bermuda grass, which rapidly spreads into the strips containing the rows of trees.

PLANTING.

DISTANCE BETWEEN THE TREES.

Wide planting, combined with clean cultivation (see Pls. II and IV), is the chief factor of success in olive culture at Sfax. Fifty years ago the Arabs hit upon the plan of setting out the trees about 80 feet apart each way, thus giving slightly less than seven trees to the acre; but this small number is said to produce as much oil as do 50 trees at Susa or 60 to 80 trees in northern Tunis. The natives continue to plant at this distance, but there is a tendency among the French owners of orchards to decrease the distance between the trees to 65.5 feet, which gives space for 10 trees to the acre if planted in squares and $11\frac{1}{2}$ trees if planted in quincunx, as is now frequently done by French olive growers. This system of wide planting conforms to the habit of the olive tree, at least when grown under the climatic and soil conditions of Sfax. It is there a comparatively shallow-rooting tree,^a but the roots form a dense network extending horizontally to an average distance, it is said, of 25 feet in every direction. The root systems of two olive trees at Sfax 80 feet apart have been observed to meet.

Great care is taken, even by the natives, to secure a perfect alignment of the trees and to plant them at exactly equal distances. Consequently the Sfax orchards are models of systematic planting.

^a One olive grower at Sfax informed the writer that practically the entire root system is contained in the first 3 feet of the soil. The shallow-rooting habit of the olive at Sfax may be at least partly due to the method of propagation by truncheons, which prevents the formation of a taproot. Rooted cuttings, such as are used in other parts of Tunis, are said to quickly develop a taproot. There is little doubt, however, that the olive is more shallow rooting than most fruit trees.

TIME AND METHOD OF PLANTING.

The trees are set out from November to February, but the best months are November and December, the benefit of the winter rains being thus secured. When heavy rains occur immediately after planting, as many as 98 per cent of the trees sometimes live, but ordinarily only 80 per cent survive. If the truncheons are set out in November, the shoots appear the following spring. If planting is deferred until February, the shoots do not ordinarily appear until the following autumn, or even the second spring, and the percentage of trees that fail to grow is often very large.

The truncheons are always planted at the bottom of holes (see fig. 4), these being generally 2 feet square and 2—or sometimes 2½—feet deep. The young shoots are thus partially shaded, and the soil around them can be kept much more moist than if the truncheons were planted near the surface of the ground. It is advisable to prepare the holes several months before planting, in order that the soil at the bottom may become thoroughly aerated and be moistened by the first autumn rains. For November planting it is recommended that the holes be made in June or July, since at that time the soil is still moist from the spring rains and hence easy to work. In a light soil a native laborer can dig these holes at the rate of fifty a day.

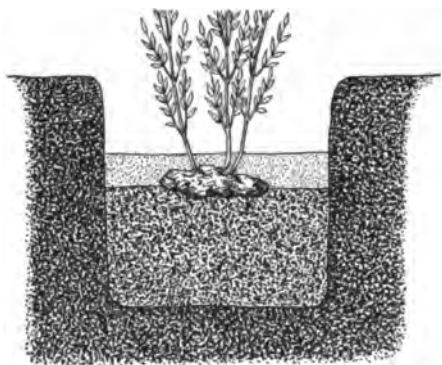


FIG. 4.—Diagram showing method of planting olive truncheons at Sfax. (After Minangolin.)

In planting, the hole is about half filled with loose soil. The truncheon is laid on this, the side on which the bark remains and which contains the buds being of course uppermost. It is then pressed down and covered with about 2 inches of soil. Manure is never put into the hole. As the shoots push up, the hole is filled until, two or three years after planting, it is nearly level with the surface; but it is desirable to maintain a slight depression, in order to hold as much water as possible around the young tree.

Of the numerous shoots that spring up from the truncheons, all are preserved the first year, but during the second year all but the two most vigorous ones are removed, and during the third year only the best and strongest shoot is allowed to grow.

Occasionally the truncheons are planted in nursery form before being set out in the orchard. In a large orchard thus established near Sfax that was visited by the writer, the trees, after having grown one year in the nursery and three years in the orchard, were 5 to 6 feet high above ground. Ordinarily, olive trees grown from these large pieces of old wood begin to bear when six years of age, but do not give any considerable amount of fruit until ten years old.

The estimated cost of planting one hundred trees in the manner above described is \$4.75 to \$5.30, including the purchase and transportation of the cuttings, digging the holes, and planting. This is only possible because of the very cheap labor obtainable in Tunis, 40 to 50 cents being the ordinary day's wages of laborers in the olive orchards at Sfax.

WATERING THE YOUNG TREES.

While the olive orchards at Sfax are not irrigated after they are once established, sufficient water for that purpose being unobtainable, it is usually necessary to water the young trees during the first summer or two after they are set out. For this purpose the water of wells and cisterns is used. There seems to be much diversity of opinion as to the number of waterings that are necessary, but the usual practice appears to be to water two or three times during each of the first two summers after planting, at the rate of 5 to 10 gallons to the tree at each watering. Frequently the young orchards are given no water during the second summer. In one plantation visited by the writer the trees were watered only once after planting. It is said that in exceptionally rainy years no watering whatever is necessary and that the trees planted in such years make the best growth. The labor required in watering is a considerable item in the expense of establishing an olive orchard at Sfax, the nearest well being often a mile distant from some of the trees.^a The natives water their trees by means of earthenware jars holding 4 or 5 gallons, but on the large plantations owned by Europeans a watering cart is generally used. To facilitate its passage, a strip of land 6 feet or so wide on either side of the rows of trees is left unplowed during the summer.^b

^a Minangoin estimates that there should be one well to every 570 acres of orchard. (*L'Olivier en Tunisie*, 1901, p. 57.)

^bAs a means of avoiding at least part of this laborious watering, it was suggested to the writer by M. Louis Drappier, of the Service des Antiquités et des Beaux Arts at Tunis, that a practice followed by the Arabs in establishing orchards in parts of Algeria where water is scarce might be advantageously adapted to dry-land olive culture. This consists in placing in the bottom of each hole in which a young tree is to be set about 100 pounds of cactus pads and covering them with a thin layer of soil, upon which the young tree is set. It is said that a supply of moisture sufficient to last two years is thereby assured. It would seem doubtful, however, whether an adequate supply of moisture would thus be provided and also whether good conditions for the roots of the young trees would result from this manner of planting.

TILLAGE.

Good tillage is essential to successful dry-land olive culture as practiced at Sfax, and this was thoroughly appreciated from the beginning by the intelligent natives who brought the present system into general use once more. In order to keep as much moisture as possible in the soil, a dust mulch, which reduces evaporation to a minimum, is maintained on the surface, especially during the summer. This loose condition also facilitates absorption of the rain that falls in autumn, winter, and spring. Furthermore, the greatest care is taken to destroy all weeds that appear. Bermuda grass is the most troublesome of these, much of the land suitable for olive culture around Sfax being thoroughly infested with it. As it is advisable to extirpate this weed before the trees are set out, the best results can sometimes be had when planting is postponed until the second year after work on the orchard is begun. The following method is recommended by Minangoin for getting rid of Bermuda grass.

A shallow plowing—to a depth of only 3 or 4 inches—is given with the rude Arab plow, followed by a harrowing, or preferably two cross harrowings. In this way the soil is pulverized and the grass roots are turned up and exposed to the sun and air. On the other hand, a deeper plowing would only bury the rootstocks out of reach of the teeth of the harrow and the shoots would quickly find their way to the surface again. The land is then gone over with a rake—generally the primitive Arab instrument known as the “*mes-saba*”—and the rootstocks gathered up by it are burned. A second, somewhat deeper plowing, followed again by the harrow and the rake, is said to be in most cases effective in extirpating the grass.

A different plan requiring much more time and labor, although equally effective, is generally followed by the Arabs. Instead of the plow they use the “*maacha*” (see fig. 5), an instrument made like a plow, but having in place of a share a flat, thin bar about $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet long, set so that its front edge slants toward the ground and adjustable so as to cut the soil at the desired depth. It otherwise resembles the native plow and is guided in the same way. This implement is passed over the land at intervals of a week or two, especially in summer, but also a few days after every rainfall in winter and spring. The *maacha* does not remove the roots but is set so as to cut off the grass stems an inch or so below the surface of the soil. As a result the roots, deprived of leaves, finally rot in the ground. It is sometimes necessary to use the *maacha* a dozen times in rapid succession before the land is clean. The instrument as used by the natives requires a great deal of strength to operate. The driver must stoop and throw the whole weight of his body against the handle bar; but

an improved form devised by a French colonist at Sfax can be guided by a man standing erect with his hands on the bar.

The importance attached to getting the land clean is shown by the fact that the "m'rharci" contract (see p. 34) is not considered to have terminated until the Bermuda grass has been extirpated. The extraordinary precautions taken to get rid of this weed show how essential clean culture is considered.

After the land has been cleared of weeds, it is worked less often. To obtain the best results, however, it is necessary to plow at least three times every year, irrespective of the age of the trees. The Arab plow, set to a depth of about 4 inches, is generally used. One authority recommends that the first plowing be given in the winter, immediately after the harvest, in order to loosen the soil that has

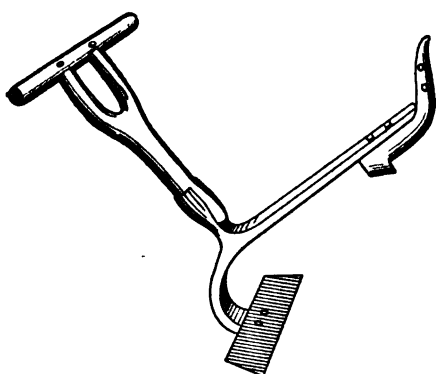


FIG. 5.—The "maacha," the tool used by the Arabs in exterminating Bermuda grass and other weeds. (After Minangoïn.)

been trampled down in the processes of harvesting and pruning. The second plowing should take place in spring, after the trees have blossomed, and the third in August or September. Many growers, however, omit the plowing in summer, and on some large plantations only a single plowing is given, soon after the harvest is finished. A marked benefit results if the soil is stirred to a greater depth with a French plow once every

two or three years. It is considered advisable, however, not to plow deeper than 10 inches, to avoid injury to the roots of the trees. In addition, the maacha is passed over the land, especially after a rain in winter, as often as is necessary to keep down the weeds and restore the mulch. At least three cultivations a year with the maacha are considered essential. The natives as a rule do all their cultivating with the maacha, using the plow only in preparing the land for seeding to grain.

It is customary during the winter to keep around each tree a shallow basin of the depth reached by the Arab plow. This is at first simply the nearly filled up hole in which the tree was planted, but is extended as the tree increases in size, so as to be always a little greater in diameter than its spread of foliage.

In summer the ground is cultivated up to the bases of the trees, but each autumn the surface of the basins is packed down and made smooth, so as to facilitate gathering the fruit that drops to the ground

during the harvest, which would be hard to pick up from plowed ground. The basins also serve the important purpose of catching and holding rain water around the bases of the trees during the winter and spring. In one plantation visited by the writer there were two short, shallow trenches, converging in V-shape, as shown in figure 6, on the uphill side of each tree, which serve to conduct the surface water after rains to the basin around the tree.^a

The suggestion was made to the writer by a French tenant on one of the new olive orchards near Sfax that the rain which falls upon the surface of the orchard could be better utilized if only an area around each tree corresponding in extent to that occupied by its roots were cultivated, leaving a strip of smooth, unplowed ground between each two neighboring trees. The water falling on the latter would run off the hard ground between into the cultivated areas around the trees. As a result of the existing practice of keeping the entire surface of the orchard cultivated, all the water is absorbed where it falls, and in the middle of the spaces between the trees, at least while the latter are young, sinks into the ground without reaching their roots. After the trees have reached their full growth, however, it is probable that their root systems occupy practically the entire area of the orchard.

Until the olive trees begin to bear a considerable quantity of fruit, i. e., usually until they are about ten years old, field crops are frequently grown among them, but after that time, and sometimes after the sixth year, all such crops are rigorously excluded. Barley is the crop that is most often grown in the young orchards, although wheat and horse beans (*Vicia faba*) are also grown. All these are fall-sown crops. Wheat is a more uncertain crop than barley at Sfax and is thought by the natives to draw more heavily on the scanty supply of moisture in the soil. Even barley, though sown every year, can be counted upon to give a good crop only once in three years. In some orchards barley and horse beans are grown in rotation.

From the outset, however, strips of ground 10 to 12 feet wide, in the center of which are the rows of trees, are left absolutely bare. These are widened and the area devoted to small crops is proportionately diminished each year until the olives begin to bear, when the land is left entirely to the trees.

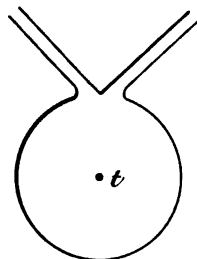


FIG. 6.—Diagram illustrating a method of conducting surface water to the base of an olive tree (t).

^a The same practice obtains also in western Algeria. See Trabut, L., L'Olivier, Bul. 21, Serv. Bot. Gouvernem. Gén. de l'Algérie, 1900, p. 41.

MANURING.

Chemical fertilizers are not used at Sfax, and even the application of barnyard manure is rather the exception than the rule, although it is admitted that a marked increase of yield can be obtained by this means. Domestic animals are few in the Sfax region, and in the extensive orchards recently planted by the French on the edge of the olive-growing district manure is often almost unobtainable. Some of the richer natives who own the older orchards near the town are better situated in this respect.

The first application of manure is said to be generally given when the trees are 10 to 12 years old, and thereafter is repeated every four or five years at the rate of 100 to 200 pounds to the tree. The manure is buried near the foot of the tree, the following method of putting it in being recommended by the manager of one of the large French plantations: A trench about 6 feet long, 2 feet wide, and 2 feet deep is dug on the uphill side of the tree, about 6 feet distant from its base, and is filled with well-rotted mixed barnyard manure. Formerly the manure was buried around the tree at its very foot, a practice that frequently injured the bark of the crown.

PRUNING.^a

One can not visit the older olive orchards around Sfax without being impressed by the symmetry of the trees and the uniformity in size and shape of their tops. This regularity is due to the great care that is given to the matter of pruning. Certain of the natives who are adepts at this work and can prune on an average eight or ten trees a day receive 60 cents a day for their services. The cost of pruning is partly and sometimes fully covered by the value of the wood removed in the process, firewood being scarce and dear in that region. The larger branches are removed with a saw and the smaller ones with a pruning hook, care being taken to make clean sections.

From the time the trees are three years old until they begin to bear they are trimmed a little every year, just enough to give them the proper shape. Severe pruning of the young trees is avoided, as it interferes with the proper development of the root system, upon which so much depends in the dry climate of Sfax. During the first two or three years it is considered inadvisable to prune the root shoot that has been selected to form the trunk, as otherwise it will grow up rapidly into a spindling, little-branched stem. When the tree is three years old the terminal shoot is cut off, and the first four

^a Much of the information contained in this section is taken from Minangolin, N., *L'Olivier en Tunisie*, Tunis, 1901, a publication that has been freely consulted in preparing the chapters on cultural methods.

branches below it are allowed to develop, all branches farther down the stem being suppressed (fig. 7). It is said that bearing commences on an average two years earlier when the terminal shoot is removed than when it is allowed to remain. The removal of the apex of the stem causes the four branches that are left just below it to ascend obliquely instead of spreading horizontally. The year following the tips of these four branches are in turn removed and all but one of their lateral twigs are cut back (fig. 8). During the fifth year new twigs begin to shoot out from the buds on the stumps (fig. 9) and the young tree begins to assume definite form.

The pruning is directed so as to secure a symmetrical, well-rounded top (Pl. I and Pl. IV, fig. 2) with the leading branches at regular intervals and rather far apart. Care is taken to prevent the tree from becoming so tall as to make harvesting difficult, the ideal being a height that equals the spread of the foliage. The inner branches are kept well thinned out, so as to in-



FIG. 7.—Sketch showing the proper form to give in pruning a three-year-old olive tree. The dotted lines indicate the branches that are removed. (After Minangolin.)



FIG. 8.—The tree shown in figure 7 as pruned when four years old. (After Minangolin.)

sure the access of as much light as possible to all the fruit-bearing twigs. The rapidly growing erect shoots, which absorb much of the sap of the tree and bear little or no fruit, are removed, except those that are destined to become the main branches. Branches growing in a horizontal direction or inclined to droop at the end are favored. The yield largely depends upon the attention given to these points. The superiority in size of trees and the greater magnitude and regularity of yield shown by the Sfax orchards as compared with those of other parts of Tunis are largely attributed to the care with which the pruning is done.

When the trees begin to bear, biennial pruning is generally substituted for annual, and the operation is usually performed immediately after the harvest, in January or February. On some plan-

tations, however, the trees are pruned lightly every year, and this is said to insure larger yields year in and year out and to cause less injury to the trees. In annual pruning, the custom is to prune lightly after a small crop in order to secure a heavy crop the season following. After a good crop a thorough pruning is given, as the same tree will not yield heavily two years in succession.

HARVESTING.

Olives commence to ripen at Sfax in October, those borne by the youngest trees being the first to mature. The harvest ordinarily

begins in the latter part of October and lasts until the end of January, but when the crop is unusually heavy it sometimes continues until March or even April. The fruit is mostly sold on the tree, the buyer taking charge of the harvest. In this, as in all operations connected with olive growing, greater care is taken at Sfax than in most olive-producing regions. The harvester by means of a double ladder (see Pl. I, frontispiece) is able to gather most of the fruit by hand. The use of a pole is avoided as far as possible, since the olives are



FIG. 9.—The tree shown in figures 7 and 8 as it appears when five years old. (After Minangoin.)

likely to be injured by bruises when knocked off. Moreover, many of the young twigs, which are to bear the crop of the following year, are destroyed when this method is followed. In pruning, the importance of making every part of the tree as accessible as possible to the harvester with his ladder is taken into consideration.

The natives are very dexterous in gathering the fruit, holding the branch with the left hand and stripping it with the right, three fingers of which are armed with the tips of rams' horns, worn like thimbles. The fruit is stripped off into a basket which is fastened to the ladder. When full, the basket is lowered to the ground by means of a cord. It is then emptied by the women upon pieces of cloth or matting, and the fruit is freed from the débris of leaves, twigs, etc., mixed with it. Finally the olives are packed into large panniers, two of which make up a camel load (450 pounds). In the evening or

very early in the morning these baskets are loaded upon camels and are thus transported to the factory. When received there they are placed in shallow cement tanks without covers and are left exposed to the weather for three or four days. This renders them soft and permits the extraction of the oil with much less pressure than is required when freshly gathered fruit is put into the presses.

The olives are sold both in the orchard and at the factory at so much the "kaffiz," an Arab measure containing about 136 gallons. The ordinary price paid per kaffiz at the factory is \$13 to \$15, which is an advance of 10 to 20 per cent on that paid for fruit on the tree. The price of a kaffiz of olives varies as much as \$4 during a single season. In 1899 it rose to \$20, and even \$22, at the factory.

YIELDS OBTAINED.

The rapidity with which the orchards come into bearing depends largely upon the thoroughness of the cultivation given them and the degree of skill used in pruning. While well-tended trees sometimes bear a little when only 3 years old, neglected trees do not begin to yield until they are 12 or 15 years old. As a rule it is eight to ten years from the time of planting before any considerable quantity of fruit is produced. Well cared for trees that are 10 years old are considered to be worth \$3 to \$3.50, the value increasing to from \$5.70 to \$7.60 for trees 15 years old and from \$9.50 to \$13.30 for trees 25 years old. When they reach the age of 25 years the trees are generally in full bearing. According to one authority, however, the yields continue to increase up to the age of 40 years. Minangoin^a gives the quantities of fruit and of oil from trees of different ages as follows:

TABLE IV.—Average yields of fruit and of oil from olive trees of different ages in the orchards of Sfax.

Age of tree.	Yield of fruit.	Yield of oil.	
		Percentage of weight of fruit.	Absolute quantity.
Years:	Gallons.	Per cent.	Gallons.
8.....	5.3	15	0.8
10.....	10.6	15	1.6
15.....	15.9	20	3.2
20.....	21.2	25	5.3

It is evident from the data given in Table IV that not only the total yields of fruit and oil but the percentage of oil to fruit by

^a Minangoin, N. Culture de l'Olivier * * * dans le Centre de la Tunisie, Tunis, 1900, p. 16. In the original the quantities are of course given in liters, not gallons.

weight increase rapidly with the age of the tree. When 25 years old, the average yield of oil per tree is about 6 gallons. Some individual trees attain a production of over 50 gallons of fruit, but such heavy bearers are said to constitute not more than 1 or 2 per cent of the Sfax orchards.

After the trees have come into full bearing their yields are said to remain stationary until they are 50 years old, when their productiveness begins to decline. When 80 years old the yields are said to diminish and become very irregular, dwindling to almost nothing in trees a hundred years old. If thoroughly pruned, cultivated deeply enough to lay bare the roots, and well manured, however, old trees can again be brought into bearing.

The crop at Sfax from trees over 20 years old is said to be worth on an average about \$2, although sometimes attaining from \$3 to \$4 per tree. It must be remembered, however, that there are only seven to ten trees to the acre.

It is instructive to compare the yields given in Table IV with those obtained in other olive-growing countries. Thus, in Provence, in southern France, well cared for trees in full bearing are said to produce an average of only 3.9 to 5.3 gallons of fruit, which, if we take the percentage of oil to be about half what it is at Sfax, would give about 0.6 gallon of oil. Hence, although in Provence the trees are planted only 33 feet apart, which allows about 60 to the acre when in squares and 70 when in quincunx, the yield of oil to the acre from well-tended orchards would still fall short of that at Sfax.

The olive is markedly periodic in its bearing and will not produce two heavy crops in succession, no matter how favorable the climatic conditions may be. At Sfax the rule is said to be that if a tree yields heavily one season it will give a medium crop the second and a light crop the third season following. Different trees yield heavily in different years, so that every year some trees are giving their maximum crop.

In January, 1900, there were in operation at Sfax 28 oil mills operated by steam power and 48 native mills operated by animal power. There were 15 mills controlled by Europeans and equipped with modern machinery. The total number of presses was 155, of which 56 were run by steam and 99 by animal traction.

RELATION OF RAINFALL TO YIELDS.

It is interesting to compare the amount of rainfall with the character of the olive crop at Sfax during each of a series of years, such a comparison being given in Table V and being shown also in figure 10.

TABLE V.—Yearly rainfall and olive production at Sfax in the years 1895 to 1904, inclusive, the latter being indicated by the exports of olive oil from the port of Sfax during each following year.

Year.	Total rainfall.	Olive crop of the year.*	
		Quantity.	Proportion of the average yield.
	Inches.	Gallons.	Per cent.
1895.	3.18		
1896.	10.53	627,983	94.0
1897.	12.92	706,625	106.0
1898.	0.75	983,360	148.0
1899.	5.57	523,258	78.5
1900.	4.13	612,711	92.0
1901.	7.93	253,120	38.0
1902.	4.58	1,022,080	153.5
1903.	5.26	591,985	89.0
1904.	6.77	666,383	100.0
Average for 10 years.	0.44	665,368	100.0
Normal for 13 years.	9.35		

* It should be noted that the statistics of exports do not discriminate between oil produced by the crop of the preceding autumn and that of two years previous, some part of which is sometimes held in reserve at Sfax if the market be dull. However, a comparison of the average prices of olive oil at Marseille with the volume of the annual exports from Sfax furnishes no evidence that the price is the chief factor in determining the quantity exported each year. It is also uncertain to what extent the coming into bearing of the recently planted orchards may affect the figures, although presumably the addition thus made to the total production has been a gradual one and not likely to cause marked fluctuations. In the main, therefore, it is believed that the above figures are fairly representative of the annual crop. To arrive at the total annual production of oil by the Sfax orchards we must add to the figures in the column showing quantity produced, 531,700 gallons, representing the average amount that is consumed locally or shipped overland to other parts of northern Africa. This is said to vary very little from year to year.

Although the records do not cover a sufficiently long period to establish a definite relation, it would appear that there is some connection between the size of the crop and the amount of rainfall of the

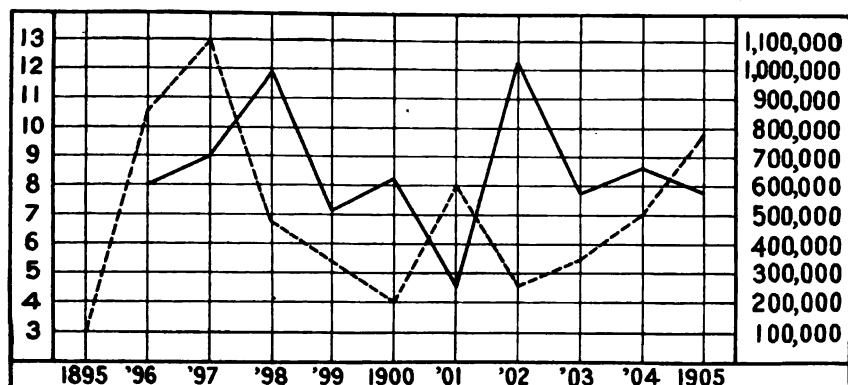


FIG. 10.—Chart showing the rainfall in inches (dotted line) and the production of olive oil (solid line) at Sfax from 1895 to 1905, the oil production being expressed in number of gallons exported during each following year.

preceding year or years, but not that of the spring preceding the ripening of the crop. Thus, the comparatively heavy rainfall (3.6

inches above the normal) in 1897 doubtless had something to do with the large crop of 1898, although the total rainfall of the first five months of the latter year was less than half of the normal. Again in 1901, when the crop was less than half the average of nine years, the rainfall for the first five months was not greatly below the normal, but that of the year previous was less than half the normal, and during the three years previous the annual rainfall was only a little more than half the normal. It is noteworthy that in 1900, after two years of rainfall much below the normal, the crop was about an average one. This was probably due to the heavy rainfall of November, 1899, which was more than three times the normal for that month, while the precipitation during the first five months of the year in which the crop was made was less than 40 per cent of the normal.^a

That successful olive culture without irrigation is possible with even a smaller rainfall than the normal for Sfax is indicated by the fact that the oil production of 1903 was only a little below, and that of 1904 was slightly above, the average, although following periods of five and six years, respectively, during which the total annual rainfall was only about 60 per cent of the normal.^b

LABOR.

While some of the French owners of olive orchards near Sfax manage their own plantations directly or through foremen, the majority have found it more convenient, and until very recently more economical, to follow the practice of the native proprietors and enter into contracts with tenants, or "m'rharci." The latter are natives more or less skilled in olive culture who undertake the planting and care of the trees. It was formerly customary to terminate the agreement between the proprietor and the m'rharci when all gaps in the orchard had been filled by replanting, all Bermuda grass had been extirpated, and the trees were beginning to bear, which was generally accomplished eight years after the planting. It is now more usual to continue the agreement until the trees begin

^a After this bulletin was in type, a report was received that the total exports of olive oil from Sfax in 1906 (crop of 1905) amounted to 592,000 gallons, which was below the average for the preceding ten years. This is doubtless to be explained by the small rainfall of the years 1902 to 1904, which averaged only about 60 per cent of the normal. On the other hand, the total rainfall in 1905 was 9.9 inches.

^b This may have been partly due, however, to the rapid extension of the orchards during the past twenty years having begun to make itself felt through the increase in the number of bearing trees. It is to be regretted that no data are available which would throw light on the influence of this factor as compared with that of annual variations in the rainfall.

to bear sufficiently to pay the current expenses of the orchard, i. e., for about ten years. At the expiration of the contract the m'rharci receives in remuneration for his services one-half of the area planted. This arrangement has the advantage of retaining in the neighborhood a number of skilled laborers upon whom the proprietor can generally depend for the care of his part of the trees after the contract has terminated.

The division of the trees between the proprietor and the m'rharci is made by drawing lots, under the supervision of the amins, who act as agricultural magistrates, and whose duty it is to settle disputes between employers and employees.^a It is said that the amins, although themselves always natives, are generally fairly impartial in regulating differences between Europeans and their m'rharcis. The proprietor generally seeks to have the plantation divided in such a way that the holdings of his former tenants will be scattered among his own. Many of the m'rharcis prefer, however, to receive money for their share of the trees.

At the beginning of the contract a sum amounting generally to 30 or 40 cents for each tree is advanced by the proprietor, to be used by the m'rharci in purchasing the necessary animals, tools, etc. The loan, which bears no interest, is repaid when the agreement ends, usually in trees from the m'rharci's share. The proprietor furnishes the land, while the m'rharci contributes the truncheons that are planted, the tools and animals used, and all the labor required in clearing, planting, and cultivating. A single m'rharci generally plants and cares for from 150 to 300 trees, while if he has a family to aid him he can sometimes handle as many as 600. He requires one camel for plowing and cultivating every 25 acres. The entire product of the field crops grown in the orchard during the first few years is the property of the m'rharci, unless, as often happens, the proprietor furnishes one-third of the seed used, in which case he is entitled to from one-fourth to one-third of the crop. It is estimated ^b that under this system it costs about \$1.40 per tree to set out an olive orchard and care for it until it is 10 years old.

Until recent years, decidedly better results were obtained under the contract system above described than when the proprietor directly or through a European foreman undertook to establish an orchard; but the former method is becoming every year more expensive. Many of the best native growers now have trees of their own to care for and are no longer willing to bind themselves out as m'rharcis. The m'rharci no longer finds on the land to be planted an abundance of old trees from which truncheons can be obtained, and these must

^a See Bul. 92, Bureau of Plant Industry, p. 32.

^b Minangoin, N. L'Olivier en Tunisie, Tunis, 1901, pp. 59 and 68.

frequently be purchased for him by his employer. Furthermore, the m'rharci now expects his employer to advance him 40 cents or more instead of 20 to 30 cents per tree at the beginning of the contract.

But, notwithstanding the increasing expense, the contract system still has decided advantages. Europeans who have planted and cared for orchards by hiring laborers under their direct supervision rather than by contracting with a m'rharci have generally found their expenses heavier and the work—especially that of getting rid of weeds—less efficiently done. Besides, they lose the advantage of having around them, when their trees begin to bear, a number of their former m'rharci, skilled and trustworthy men with whom they have been accustomed to deal and who are usually willing, for moderate wages, to continue the cultivation of their old employer's orchard as well as of their own.

Some of the large plantations belonging to nonresident Europeans are managed by a French agent or foreman under contract for a certain period (generally ten years). He receives a small salary (\$30 or \$40 a month) and is entitled, at the expiration of his contract, to a certain percentage—usually one-eighth or one-tenth—of the land planted in olives. He in turn either hires laborers or else contracts with native tenants or m'rharci for the planting and cultivation of the orchard. It is said that an orchard established under the supervision of a competent foreman will yield sufficient fruit after eight years to pay all or most of the running expenses.

The cultivation of the orchard after the m'rharci contract has expired is carried on either by reengaging the m'rharci, in which case he receives one-third or one-half of the crop produced, or else by hiring day laborers. In the latter case it usually costs the owner 18 cents per tree annually to have the cultivation and pruning done. If paid by the day, a laborer earns from 40 to 50 cents when engaged in cultivating or plowing. With a camel he can plow $2\frac{1}{2}$ acres in two or three days and can cultivate the same area with a "maacha" in one day. For pruning, which requires special skill, a man receives about 60 cents a day. The crop, as we have seen, is generally gathered under contract by the purchaser, the harvesters being usually paid with a share of the fruit.

UTILIZATION OF THE RUN-OFF IN OLIVE CULTURE IN OTHER PARTS OF TUNIS.

Olive orchards occupy large areas in northern Tunis, notably in the neighborhood of the capital itself and in the valley of the Mejerda, the principal river of Tunis. In this region the annual rainfall^a is sufficient for olive production without any special meas-

^a The average annual rainfall at the city of Tunis is 18.8 inches.

ures being taken to conserve the soil moisture. The olive is also an important tree in some of the oases of southern Tunis, where the scantiness of the rainfall ^a is compensated for by the abundant supply of water from springs that is available for irrigation.

But in one of the most important olive-producing regions in Tunis, i. e., that surrounding Susa ^b on the eastern coast, the normal annual rainfall of 16.6 inches, although greatly exceeding that at Sfax, is yet so small as to make it worth while to employ a special method for utilizing it to the fullest possible extent. This method is very different from that used at Sfax, and in its way is almost equally interesting. The country around Susa is very hilly, being divided by limestone ridges into small valleys and ravines. The bottoms of these valleys and the lower slopes, which are made sufficiently level for the purpose by a system of terracing, are occupied by small basins, separated one from another by low banks of earth. Each basin contains a few olive trees, usually only from two to eight. The stony upper slopes and summits of the ridges, which produce a scanty natural growth of shrubs and grasses, are not cultivated. At intervals along these slopes, or "meskas," as they are termed by the Arabs, are shallow trenches running obliquely toward the bottom. These are so arranged as to catch and conduct to the basins as much as possible of the rain water that falls upon the slope. The owner of each orchard has a recognized right to all water that falls upon the slopes adjacent to his property. The basins are said often to remain filled with water during the month of January.

The heavier texture of the soil around Susa as compared with that at Sfax is favorable to this method of irrigation by rainfall, as it permits the water to flow from basin to basin, instead of being all quickly absorbed in the first one. It is generally observed in this region that olive orchards that are watered by the rain that falls on the "meskas" give larger and especially more regular yields than those receiving only direct rainfall.

From the nature of the case, accurate alignment and widely distant planting of the trees as practiced at Sfax are out of the question at Susa. The trees stand comparatively close together, so that there are often forty to the acre instead of only seven to ten, as at Sfax. Much less care is taken to cultivate the soil, and this also is more or

^a The normal annual rainfall in the oasis of Gafsa is 8.5 inches; in that of Gabes, 7.6 inches; in that of Tozer, 5.1 inches. In the oasis of El Oudiane, 9 miles distant from Tozer (see Bulletin 92, Bureau of Plant Industry, p. 16), there are 25,000 olive trees, with an average yearly production of 132,000 gallons of oil.

^b Susa, better known by its French name of Sousse, is about 70 miles south-east of Tunis and about an equal distance north of Sfax.

less inevitable from the nature of the ground; but there seems to be no good excuse for the small attention that is paid at Susa to pruning, as compared with the thoroughly scientific way in which this operation is performed in the Sfax orchards.

Many of the trees have several trunks, which is explained by the natives as having been due to a violent storm, which a century ago laid low most of the olive trees around Susa, after which event several shoots at the base of each tree were allowed to spring up.^a The greater part of the olive trees around Susa are of great age, often 100 or 150 years old, it is said. But when well cared for with respect to cultivation of the soil, pruning, and manuring, even these old trees are reported to give good returns, netting the owners in some years as much as 95 cents to the tree, or \$38 per acre.^b

SUMMARY.

(1) Arboriculture is an important phase of dry-land agriculture and one that has as yet received little attention in the United States.

(2) The olive, owing to its peculiar leaf structure and to the character of its root system, is especially fitted for growing in regions where the rainfall is slight and irrigation is impossible.

(3) Fifteen hundred years ago the olive was grown without irrigation under a rainfall of from 8 to 14 inches over an extensive region in northern Africa, the prosperity of which in Roman times depended chiefly upon its production of olive oil. A vast region that is now practically an uninhabited desert was then covered with olive orchards and with flourishing cities and towns.

(4) During the last hundred years much progress has been made in reestablishing dry-land olive culture in southern Tunis. There are now nearly 500,000 acres of unirrigated olive orchards in the neighborhood of Sfax.

(5) As would be expected from its nearness to the Sahara, the climate of Sfax is almost desert-like. The summers are very hot and the average annual rainfall is only 9.3 inches, sometimes falling below an average of 6 inches for seven consecutive years. As in California, the summer is the dry season and the winter the wet season.

(6) The ground water lies too deep to be reached by the roots of the trees. No water is available for irrigation.

(7) The soil of the Sfax region that is considered best adapted to olive culture is a red loam or fine sandy loam that is fairly uniform in texture to an average depth of seven feet. It is very retentive of moisture, rich in lime and potash, but apparently deficient in nitrogen and phosphoric acid.

^a Minangolin, N. *L'Olivier en Tunisie*, Tunis, 1901, p. 32.

^b Minangolin, N., l. c., p. 54.

(8) Only one variety of olive, the Chemlaly, a small-fruited oil-producing variety, is extensively grown in the Sfax region. It is a very productive variety and its fruits yield an unusually high percentage of oil.

(9) Wide planting and thorough cultivation are the most important principles of olive culture at Sfax. The trees are planted 65 to 80 feet apart in each direction, giving space for only seven to ten trees to the acre.

(10) The olive is propagated at Sfax by means of large truncheons or pieces of old wood, each containing several buds. These are set to a depth of about a foot in holes, which become gradually filled as the young trees grow up. During the first summer or two, two or three waterings by hand are usually given. All shoots but the best one are trimmed away within three years after setting out the truncheon.

(11) A good dust mulch is always maintained on the surface of the orchard, and weeds, of which Bermuda grass is the most troublesome, are kept down by frequent cultivation. As a rule, the soil is stirred by a shallow plowing three times a year. The most important plowing is the one that immediately follows the harvest. After the trees begin to bear, no other crop is allowed to grow among them.

(12) Great care is taken in the matter of pruning, the trees being given a broad, symmetrical top. The interior branches are thinned out so that plenty of light and air can reach all the fruit-bearing twigs. The comparatively sterile, rapidly growing, erect branches are removed. Skillful pruning is an important factor in the large yields obtained.

(13) The harvesting is done by hand, more than usual care being taken to avoid bruising the fruit or breaking the branches.

(14) After eight or ten years the trees generally yield enough fruit to pay the current expenses of the orchard, and when about 25 years old they are in full bearing. The average yield per tree is then about 24 gallons of fruit, which gives 6 gallons of oil.

(15) There is apparently a relation between the yield of the olive and the rainfall of the previous year, but none between the yield and the rainfall of the year in which the crop is made.

(16) In another part of Tunis, where the rainfall is about 16.5 inches and the country more hilly than around Sfax, the rain that falls on the slopes is collected in trenches and conducted into small basins in which the trees are planted.

PLATES.

125

41

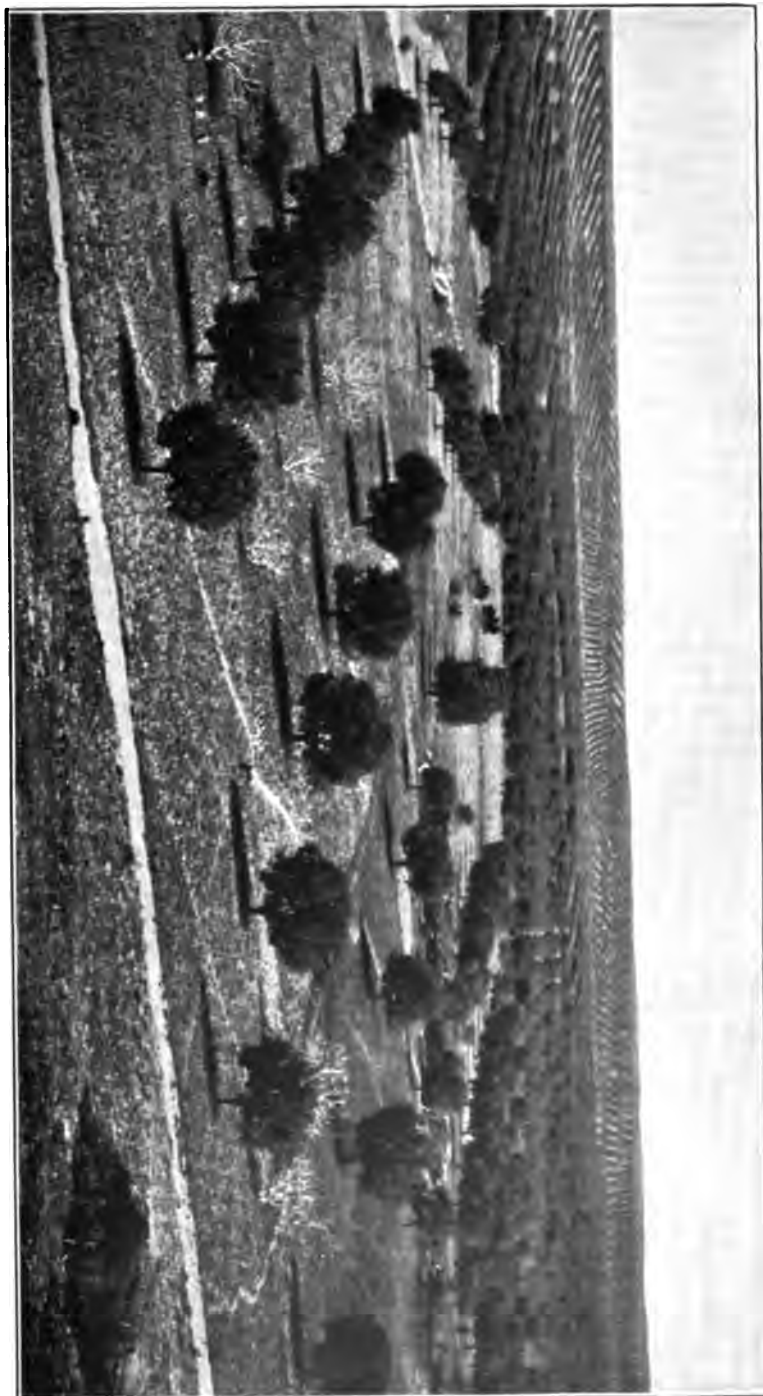
DESCRIPTION OF PLATES.

PLATE I. *Frontispiece*. Harvesting Chemlaly olives in a dry-land orchard at Sfax in southern Tunis. Since the quality of the oil is impaired if the fruit becomes bruised, the use of a pole is avoided and the picker uses a ladder to reach the fruit-bearing twigs. Pruning is managed so that every part of the tree can be reached in this way. The native pickers protect their fingers with the tips of rams' horns and can thus strip the fruit off the twigs without injuring their hands. The olives are collected in the large baskets shown in the illustration and are transported by camels to the factory. The plate also shows the clean cultivation of the orchards, the dust mulch maintained on the surface, and the care with which pruning is done.

PLATE II. General view of the older dry-land olive orchards near Sfax, showing the wide planting and clean cultivation practiced and the uniform shape given the trees by careful pruning. The leafless trees in the foreground are figs, these and other fruit trees being occasionally planted in the olive orchards that belong to natives. (From a photograph furnished by the Direction des Antiquités et Beaux Arts at Tunis.)

PLATE III. A fruit-bearing twig of the Chemlaly olive, natural size, from a photograph by M. Minangoin. The fruits of this variety are small but numerous and are very rich in oil. They are jet black when ripe.

PLATE IV, Fig. 1.—Recently planted dry-land olive orchards about twenty miles from Sfax. The view shows the careful alignment and wide spacing of the trees, which are 80 feet apart each way and number only 7 to the acre. Most of the trees shown are from ten to twelve years old. The hillside in the immediate foreground and that in the left background are unfit for planting to olives because of the absence of soil, a calcareous rock coming to the surface at these points. Fig. 2.—The interior of an older olive orchard at Sfax, showing the entire absence of weeds, the great distance between the trees, and the well-rounded symmetrical form of the trees due to scientific pruning. These trees are about thirty years old and are in full bearing.



GENERAL VIEW OF THE OLDER DRY-LAND OLIVE ORCHARDS NEAR SFAK.



A FRUIT-BEARING TWIG OF THE CHEMLALY OLIVE.

(Natural size.)



FIG. 1.—RECENTLY PLANTED DRY-LAND OLIVE ORCHARDS NEAR SFAX, SHOWING THE CAREFUL ALIGNMENT AND WIDE SPACING OF THE TREES.



FIG. 2.—THE INTERIOR OF A SFAX OLIVE ORCHARD, SHOWING WIDE PLANTING, CLEAN CULTIVATION, AND CAREFUL PRUNING.

INDEX.

	Page.
Africa, ancient, importance of dry-land arboriculture.....	8-12
Agriculture, dry-land, importance of arboriculture.....	38
Algeria, ancient, flourishing condition, causes, etc.....	10-12
population.....	9
condition from third to seventh century.....	9-12
Almond, cultivation in ancient Tunis.....	11
orchards, establishment by French capitalists.....	13
Amins, Sfax, duties in settling contracts.....	35
Amphitheater of Thysdrus.....	10
Arabs, destruction of olive orchards in ancient Tunis.....	12
Arboriculture, importance in ancient Africa.....	8-12
Arizona, Tucson, precipitation compared with Sfax.....	15
temperature changes compared with Sfax.....	15
Barley growing in olive orchards.....	27
Basin, olive tree, purposes.....	26-27
Basins, olive orchards, use in conservation of moisture.....	39
Beans, horse, growing in olive orchards.....	27
Bermuda grass. <i>See</i> Grass, Bermuda.	
Bertalncband, opinion on cause of excess of stearin in Sfax olives.....	20
Calcium carbonate. <i>See</i> Lime.	
California, Fresno, precipitation compared with Sfax.....	15
San Diego, precipitation compared with Sfax.....	15
Camels, use in cultivation of olive orchards, Sfax.....	35
marketing olives, Sfax.....	30-31
Chemlaly olive, oil content.....	19
quality.....	19
sale in European countries.....	19
tree, description.....	19-20
Christ thorn, habits.....	17
Sfax, resemblance to mesquite of New Mexico.....	17
Cisterns, ancient Tunis, remains.....	10
Sfax, description, use, etc.....	16
Clay content, soils of Sfax region.....	18
Clearing land for olive planting.....	21-22
Sfax region, difficulties from Christ thorn.....	17
Contract system, olive orchards, Sfax.....	34-36
advantages.....	36
increase of expense.....	35
Contracts, care of olive orchards, Sfax, advance payments.....	35
olive orchard planting and care, Sfax.....	34-36
Cottonwood, propagation in Kansas from "snags".....	20
Crops, field, grown in olive orchards, Sfax, ownership.....	35

	Page.
Cuttings, olive, imported from Sfax by Agricultural Department, 1905,	
history, etc	21
securing, care, etc	21
<i>See also</i> Truncheons.	
Drappler, Louis, recommendation of use of cactus pads in planting	
olive truncheons	24
Dry-land agriculture, importance of arboriculture	38
in ancient Africa	8-12
olive culture in modern Tunis	12-30
tree culture, relation to wealth of ancient Tunis	11
seasons, effect on yield of olives	34
Dust mulch, olive orchards, necessity	25, 39
El Oudiane, oasis, olive production	37
Exports of olive oil from Sfax, 1895-1904	33
1906	34
Factory, olive oil, treatment of fruit before pressing	31
Fertilizers, chemical, not used in Sfax olive orchards	28
Fig, cultivation in ancient Tunis	11
Foreman, olive orchards, Sfax, requirements	36
France, Provence, olive trees, production of oil compared to Sfax trees	32
Fruit, value of olive trees 20 years old at Sfax	32
yield at different ages of olive tree, average	31-32
Gabes, oasis, annual rainfall	37
Gafsa, oasis, annual rainfall	37
Grain crops in olive orchards	27
Grass, Bermuda, extirpation, methods at Sfax	25-27
troublesome weed in Sfax region	22
Harvest time, olives, at Sfax	30
Harvesting, olive, gathering by hand	30
method at Sfax	30-31, 39
Holes for planting olive trees, number dug per day by one laborer	23
Horse beans, growing in olive orchard	27
Introduction to bulletin	7-8
Irrigation, ancient Tunis, not practicable	10
Italy, Bari district, oil content of olives	19
"Kaffiz," measure for selling olives, size, etc	31
Labor, olive growing, cost by day at Sfax	24
management at Sfax	34
remuneration at Sfax	35
requirements of merchants at Sfax	35
Ladder, use in olive harvesting	30
Lands, Tunis, purchase from government, rates, conditions, etc	13
Lime content, soils of Sfax region	18
Limestone regions, suitability for olive culture	19
"Maacha," use by Arabs in eradication of Bermuda grass from olive	
orchards	25
Mauure, barnyard, application to olive trees, method	28
use in olive orchards	28
Marketing, olive, variation in prices at Sfax	31
"Meskas," Susa region	37
Mesquite, New Mexico, resemblance to Christ thorn of Sfax	17
"Messaba," use in gathering rootstocks of Bermuda grass at Sfax	25

	Page.
Mills, olive oil, Sfax, number, equipment, etc.....	32
Minangoin, N., number of wells to given orchard recommended.....	24
recommendation for extirpation of Bermuda grass.....	25
table showing average yield of olives and oil per tree at Sfax.....	31
Moisture, conservation in olive orchards, methods in Susa region.....	37
suggestion of French tenant.....	27
Tunis.....	30
use of basins and trenches.....	26-27
"M'rharei" contract, relation of Bermuda grass.....	26
"M'rhareis," contracts for planting olive orchards, conditions, Sfax.....	34
remuneration for ten years' care of orchard.....	35
Mulch, dust, necessity in Sfax olive orchards.....	25, 30
New Mexico, eastern, topography compared with Sfax region.....	17
Nitrogen content, soils of Sfax region.....	18
Oases, southern Tunis, olive culture.....	37
Oil conduit, ancient Tunis.....	12
content of Chemlaly olive.....	19
olive in Europe at northern limit of production.....	19
influence of climate.....	19
mills, ancient Tunis, construction.....	11
ruins in Tunis.....	11
Sfax, numbers, equipment, control, etc.....	13, 32
olive, exports from Sfax, 1895-1906.....	33
1906.....	34
from oases of Sahara Desert, resemblance to that of northern Tunis, cause.....	20
percentage of weight of fruit and average yield at different ages of tree.....	31-32
produced in limestone regions, quality.....	19
supply of ancient Rome from Tunis.....	11
trade, southern Tunis, decline, causes.....	12
yearly production of southern Tunis.....	13
Olive, Chemlaly, adaptability to hot, dry climate.....	20
culture, adaptation to dry regions.....	38
ancient Africa.....	38
congress held at Tunis, 1888, decision as to orchards and yield of Tunis orchards.....	13
introduction of present system.....	12
methods of dry-culture in Tunis.....	14
northern Tunis.....	36-38
southern Tunis, revival.....	38
Susa region, methods.....	37-38
without irrigation, possibilities of dry climates.....	34
orchard. See Orchard, olive.	
production, yearly, Sfax, 1895-1904.....	33
1906.....	34
tree, age for bearing.....	24
trees aged, in Tunis.....	11
Chemlaly, causes of large yield at Sfax.....	20
number planted, 1892-1904.....	13
variety grown in Sfax region.....	39
Olives, marketing, variation in prices, etc.....	31
pickling varieties, need of abundant water.....	20
prices.....	31

	Page.
Olives, propagation, methods at Sfax.....	20-21
sale on tree, custom.....	30
time of ripening.....	30
Orchards, olive, Algeria, use of cactus pads by Arabs in planting.....	24
ancient Tunis, destruction by Arabs.....	12
extent.....	11
conservation of moisture, methods at Sfax.....	25-28
cultivation.....	27
distance between trees.....	22
establishing, steps.....	21-27
necessity for clean culture.....	26
propagation, planting, etc.....	19-36
Provence, France.....	32
restoration in Tunis, encouragement by government.....	13
Sfax.....	19-36
age at which trees pay expenses.....	36
appearance and yield.....	13
clearing the land.....	21-22
cultivation after expiration of contract, manage- ment, expenses, etc.....	35
extent, 1881.....	12
growth since 1881.....	13
harvesting.....	30-31
labor.....	34-36
manuring.....	28
planting.....	22-24
propagation.....	20-21
proprietors, requirements by m'rcharcis' contract....	35
pruning.....	28-30
relation of rainfall to yields.....	32-34
tillage.....	25-27
variety grown.....	19-20
work of French capitalists.....	12-14
yields.....	31-32
southern Tunis, present extent.....	13
Panners, use in marketing olives.....	30
Phosphoric acid content, soils of Sfax region.....	18
Pistache, cultivation in ancient Tunis.....	11
Planting, olive, time and method.....	23
methods at Sfax.....	22-23
Plates, description.....	42
Plowing, deep, clearing land for olive orchards.....	22
methods for extirpation of Bermuda grass in olive orchards....	25
olive orchards.....	26
Pole, use in harvesting, injury to fruit and trees.....	30
Populus deltoides. <i>See</i> Cottonwood.	
Potash content of soils of Sfax region.....	18
Precipitation, El Paso, Tex., compared with Sfax.....	15
Fresno, Cal., compared with Sfax.....	15
relation to olive yield.....	32-34, 39
St. George, Utah, compared with Sfax.....	15
San Antonio, Tex., compared with Sfax.....	15
San Diego, Cal., compared with Sfax.....	15

	Page.
Precipitation, Sfax, annual	15-16, 33
variation for different years	16
Tucson, Ariz., compared with Sfax	15
Tunis	8
Presses, olive oil, steam and animal traction, numbers at Sfax	32
Prices of olive trees at different ages	31
olives at factory	31
Propagation of olive at Sfax, methods	20-21
use of truncheons at Sfax	39
Pruning olive trees, annual, Sfax	29-30
biennial, time, etc.	29
cost by the day	36
relation of method to harvesting	30
Sfax, cost	28
methods	27-30, 39
Susa region	38
Rainfall. <i>See</i> Precipitation.	
Ripening, olive	30
Root shoots, olive tree, pruning	28
system, olive tree	19, 22
Run-off, utilization in olive culture in Tunis	38
Sagebrush, Sfax	17
Sahara Desert, olive oil of oases, resemblance to that of northern Tunisia, causes	20
Sand content of soils of Sfax region	18
Sea water, use in Sfax	16
Sfax, climate	14, 15-16, 38
olive orchards	19-36
precipitation, annual average	15-16
variation for different years	16
region, characteristics	14-19
climate, description	14-17, 38
reestablishment of olive culture	12-14
temperature, average monthly	14
topography, vegetation, soils, etc.	17-19
Shoots, olive truncheons, management	23
Silt content of soils of Sfax region	18
Soils, olive culture, high lime content necessary	19
Sfax region	18
chemical analyses, results	18-19
description	17-19, 38
mechanical analyses, results	18
water content	17-18
Susa region, compared to Sfax region	37
Stearin content, Chemlaly olive oil	19, 20
high content in olive oil, causes	20
Suffetula, flourishing condition, third to seventh century	10
Summary of bulletin	38-39
Susa, annual rainfall	37
region, topography	37
situation	37

	Page.
Temperature, monthly mean, Sfax.....	14
olive culture, importance.....	15
Texas, El Paso, precipitation compared with Sfax.....	15
San Antonio, precipitation compared with Sfax.....	15
temperature changes compared with Sfax.....	15
western, topography compared with Sfax region.....	17
Tillage, olive orchards, Sfax.....	25-28
Topography of Sfax region.....	17
Tozer, oasis, annual rainfall.....	37
Trabut, Dr. L., suggestion for use of Chemlaly olive as stock for larger fruit.....	20
Trees, olive, age for maximum yield.....	32
pruning.....	28
bearing age, differences, causes.....	31
cost, first ten years.....	35
of planting.....	24
full bearing age, yield, etc.....	39
method of planting.....	13
old, disappearance, Sfax.....	35
treatment to bring into bearing.....	32
periodic bearing, characteristics.....	32
prices for different ages.....	31
pruning, methods at Sfax.....	28
Susa region, peculiarities of form.....	38
Truncheons, olive, management.....	20, 24
planting in nursery form.....	24
use in propagation of olives.....	39
<i>See also</i> Cuttings.	
Tunis, climate not changed since ancient times.....	10
northern, olive culture.....	36-38
uninterrupted.....	12
present condition.....	8-9
Twigs, olive tree, injury by use of pole in harvesting.....	30
Vegetation, natural, Sfax region.....	17
Water, absence of perennial streams in Sfax region.....	16
scarcity, Sfax region.....	38
sea, use in Sfax.....	16
selling in Sfax.....	16
Watering olive trees, methods at Sfax.....	24
young trees, necessity, methods at Sfax, etc.....	24
Wells, number required for given orchard.....	24
Sfax, description.....	16
Wheat growing in olive orchard.....	27
Wood, scarcity and need at Sfax.....	28
Yields, average, of fruit and oil of olive trees at different ages, Sfax.....	31-32
Zizyphus spina-christa. <i>See</i> Christ thorn.	

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY—BULLETIN NO. 126.

B. T. GALLOWAY, *Chief of Bureau.*

NOMENCLATURE OF THE PEAR;
A CATALOGUE-INDEX OF THE KNOWN VARIETIES
REFERRED TO IN AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS
FROM 1804 TO 1907.

COMPILED BY

W. H. RAGAN,
EXPERT IN POMOLOGICAL NOMENCLATURE.

ISSUED JUNE 30, 1908.



WASHINGTON:
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1908.

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY,
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF,
Washington, D. C., December 14, 1907.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith the copy for a bulletin entitled "Nomenclature of the Pear; a Catalogue-Index of the Known Varieties Referred to in American Publications from 1804 to 1907," prepared by Mr. W. H. Ragan, Expert in Pomological Nomenclature.

The manuscript submitted is a nearly complete compilation of the published names of cultivated varieties of pears, accompanied by brief descriptions and histories of varieties, including origin, form, size, color, texture, flavor, quality, and time of maturity.

I recommend that this manuscript be published as Bulletin No. 126 of the special series of this Bureau.

Respectfully,

B. T. GALLOWAY,
Chief of Bureau.

Hon. JAMES WILSON,
Secretary of Agriculture.

CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction.....	7
Code of nomenclature of the American Pomological Society.....	9
Priority.....	9
Form of names.....	10
Publication.....	10
Revision.....	11
Arrangement of the catalogue-index.....	11
Abbreviations used in descriptions of varieties.....	11
Abbreviations used in citations of authors and publications.....	12
Alphabetic list of abbreviations used in designating the publications quoted.....	12
Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publi- cations from 1804 to 1907.....	17
Index to the American literature of the pear, 1804 to 1907.....	263
Index.....	267

NOMENCLATURE OF THE PEAR;

A CATALOGUE-INDEX OF THE KNOWN VARIETIES REFERRED TO IN AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS FROM 1804 TO 1907.

INTRODUCTION.

This bulletin is the second (following the already published "Nomenclature of the Apple") in a contemplated series in which it is hoped that the names of all the cultivated fruits will ultimately be published and disseminated for the information of those who are interested in the correct nomenclature of varieties.

In the series to which this belongs no effort is being made to include varieties and descriptions from foreign authors. Foreign writers (other than those of our near-by neighbors of the Canadian Provinces, who are always treated as our own) have published the names of many varieties that are not included in this compilation. It is true, however, that an occasional reference is made to foreign authors as having published names of varieties or as giving descriptions referred to in the following tables in the column devoted to remarks and presented as historical facts. It will therefore be understood that this is purely an American work and that what is to be found in its pages is but the reflex of the literature of the pear as it occurs in publications of American authors and writers.

Many American writers on the names of fruits have acknowledged in varying language and with more or less emphasis that our nomenclature is in a deplorable state of confusion, and each has regretted his inability to accomplish more than a small part of the great task of correcting and simplifying it. This confusion is the result of a combination of causes, of which the greatest has been the enormous expense of such an undertaking and the little promise of pecuniary reward.

Robert Manning, late of Salem, Mass., who established in 1823 the first extensive collection of varieties of fruits, carefully selected and named, in this country and who realized to the fullest extent the importance of correct nomenclature, said in the introduction to his "Book of Fruits," published in 1838:

The innumerable errors in the names of fruits are inconceivable to any but a collector. It is very desirable that there should be some acknowledged standard, to whose authority in doubtful cases of this nature we might appeal.

Col. Marshall P. Wilder, the long-time president of the American Pomological Society, subsequently said, under the head of "Improved Nomenclature":

In the future, we desire to use but one word for the name of a fruit, as with the Baldwin apple, the Bartlett pear, the Concord grape, and other renowned fruits, which will be perpetually known by appropriate and easily remembered names. In a word, we desire to establish a system of nomenclature which shall be pure and plain in its diction, pertinent and proper in its application, and an example not only to our own but to other countries; to strike off the hundreds of Beurrés and Doyennes from the names of our pears where it is possible to do so, and to write hereafter Anjou, Diel, and Boussock in the place of Beurre d'Anjou, Beurre Diel, Doyenne Boussock, etc.

The necessity for such an improved system of nomenclature has grown with the multiplication of varieties and the increasing importance of our fruit industries. In the hope of supplying this "improved system of nomenclature" the Bureau of Plant Industry of the United States Department of Agriculture, in cooperation with the American Pomological Society, is now laboring to facilitate the reform so earnestly desired by Mr. Manning and Colonel Wilder, and by all true pomologists of subsequent time.

Among our standard fruits the pear in many of its characteristics ranks next in importance to the apple, and is therefore made the subject of this publication. In collecting data for its foundation no pains have been spared to make it as complete and as reliable as possible. A careful and painstaking search of the American literature of the pear, extending back to and including the publication of the Domestic Encyclopedia in 1804, enables us to present a fairly complete synonymy of its nomenclature, embracing both leading names and their synonyms. These have been arranged in alphabetic order and with special reference to ease and facility in determining any and all questions which may arise in connection with the nomenclature of the pear.

As in the preparation of the apple bulletin, the code of nomenclature of the American Pomological Society has been followed in the naming of varieties. This code, as already indicated in the quotation from Colonel Wilder and in common with the tendency of the times, inclines toward ease and simplicity in varietal nomenclature, and when applied to the pear has led to many changes, which will be clearly apparent to the student of pomology. A large percentage of our cultivated pears originated in foreign countries and have come to us with names which are generally long and difficult of pronunciation, especially by the uneducated tongue, and abound in superfluous prefixes, suffixes, and meaningless verbiage. The rules cited authorize their simplification, and this authority has been freely availed of in the preparation of this bulletin, though in all cases in which changes have been made the

original name appears in its proper place as a synonym, so that the student will have no difficulty in tracing the name to its source and also in determining by means of citations the authority for making the change.

It is not claimed that all names that appear in this catalogue as leading names represent distinct varieties, as it has often been impossible to determine from the meager information obtainable that such is the case. All names that have been found in an exhaustive search of the literature of the pear, conducted as preliminary to the completion of this work, are included in its pages. Concerning some of these no reliable information has been found, and of course they are only given as names that have been published (the citations always tell where) for what have been claimed to be distinct varieties. Many of these will probably prove to be worthless seedlings or old and already named sorts, along with which they must ultimately take their place as synonyms.

Some instances will be found in which one name has long been applied to two or more distinct varieties which it may not now be advisable to change. In almost all such cases a "distinguishing term" is used to designate the one from the other, as in "Jargonelle (Eng.)," "Jargonelle (Fr.)," "Bon Chretien (Sum.)," "Bon Chretien (Win.)," etc. (See Rule 1 of the Code.) Leading names are printed in black-faced type and synonyms in italics.

In order that the Code of Nomenclature may be fully understood and appreciated, its complete text is herewith presented:

CODE OF NOMENCLATURE OF THE AMERICAN POMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

(Adopted at Boston, September 10, 1903.)

PRIORITY.

RULE 1. No two varieties of the same kind of fruit shall bear the same name. The name first published for a variety shall be the accepted and recognized name, except in cases where it has been applied in violation of this code.

A. The term "kind" as herein used shall be understood to apply to those general classes of fruits which are grouped together in common usage without regard to their exact botanical relationship, as apple, cherry, grape, peach, plum, raspberry, etc.

B. The paramount right of the originator, discoverer, or introducer of a new variety to name it, within the limitations of this code, is recognized and emphasized.

C. Where a variety name through long usage has become thoroughly established in American pomological literature for two or more varieties, it should not be displaced nor radically modified for either sort, except in cases where a well-known synonym can be advanced to the position of leading name. The several varieties bearing identical names should be distinguished by adding the name of the author

who first described each sort, or by adding some other suitable distinguishing term which will insure their identity in catalogues or discussions

D. Existing American names of varieties which conflict with earlier published foreign names of the same or other varieties, but which have become thoroughly established through long usage, shall not be displaced.

FORM OF NAMES.

RULE 2. The name of a variety of fruit shall consist of a single word.

A. No variety should be named unless distinctly superior to existing varieties in some important characteristic, nor until it has been determined to perpetuate it by bud propagation.

B. In selecting names for varieties the following points should be emphasized: Distinctiveness, simplicity, ease of pronunciation and spelling, indication of origin or parentage.

C. The spelling and pronunciation of a varietal name derived from a personal or geographical name should be governed by the rules which control the spelling and pronunciation of the name from which it was derived.

D. A variety imported from a foreign country should retain its foreign name, subject only to such modification as is necessary to conform it to this code or to render it intelligible in English.

E. The name of a person should not be applied to a variety during his life without his express consent. The name of a deceased horticulturist should not be so applied except through formal action by some competent horticultural body, preferably that with which he was most closely connected.

F. The use of such general terms as seedling, hybrid, pippin, pearmain, beurre, rare-ripe, damson, etc., is not admissible.

G. The use of a possessive noun as a name is not admissible.

H. The use of a number, either singly or attached to a word, should be considered only as a temporary expedient while the variety is undergoing preliminary test.

I. In applying the various provisions of this rule to an existing varietal name which has through long usage become firmly embedded in American pomological literature, no change shall be made which will involve loss of identity.

RULE 3. In the full and formal citation of a variety name, the name of the author who first published it shall be given.

PUBLICATION.

RULE 4. Publication consists (1) in the distribution of a printed description of the variety named, giving the distinguishing characters of fruit, tree, etc., or (2) in the publication of a new name for a variety which is properly described elsewhere; such publications to be made in any book, bulletin, report, trade catalogue or periodical, providing the issue bears the date of its publication and is generally distributed among nurserymen, fruit growers, and horticulturists; or (3) in certain cases the general recognition of a name for a propagated variety in a community for a number of years shall constitute publication of that name.

A. In determining the name of a variety to which two or more names have been given in the same publication, that which stands first shall have precedence.

REVISION.

RULE 5. No properly published variety name shall be changed for any reason except conflict with this code, nor shall another variety be substituted for that originally described thereunder.

ARRANGEMENT OF THE CATALOGUE-INDEX.

All names and synonyms of varieties are arranged alphabetically and each name or synonym is immediately followed by citations of American authors or publications in abbreviated form that have used the same, and, as far as possible, these citations appear in the chronological order of their publication; viz, the first American publisher of the name or synonym, as the case may be, appears first in its order of citation, and so on to the end. Different editions by a given author and serial publications are indicated by the number of the volume, the date of the copyright, or the year of the publication. In the case of standard publications, the date of the copyright, when ascertainable, has always been given the preference.

Immediately following these citations and in the case of leading names will be found all known synonyms, and after a synonym its true name. Thus, "Sickel. D'45,415,'57,443,'69,852. T'75,555,'85,570,'97,714. Syn. of Seckel" means that Downing and Thomas in their several editions and on the pages cited have published "Sickel" as a synonym of "Seckel." Through this order of publication and citations the reader will be enabled to find the variety and what may be said of it in any publication in which it has appeared and which has been discovered in our search for names, and thus this bulletin will prove to be a fairly complete index to the American literature of the pear.

Following the publication of varieties and their citations will be found a tabular and abbreviated form of descriptions that will aid greatly in conveying a correct understanding as to their leading characteristics, including origin, time of ripening, etc., together with a column for remarks in which many additional facts are briefly presented.

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN DESCRIPTIONS OF VARIETIES.

The following abbreviations are used in the descriptions of varieties:

Origin: Amer., America; Eur., Europe; Eng., England; For., Foreign; Fr., France; Mass., Massachusetts; N. Y., New York, etc.

Form: a, acute; f, flat; obl, oblong; obo, obovate; obt, obtuse; ov, ovate; p, pyriform; r, round; t, truncate.

Size: l, large; m, medium; s, small; vl, very large; vs, very small.

Color: b, blushed; br, brown; c, cinnamon; g, green; r, red; ru, russet; s, striped; w, white; y, yellow.

Texture: b, buttery; c, crisp; co, coarse; d, delicate; g, gritty; j, juicy; m, melting; t, tough.

Flavor: a, acid; sa, subacid; p, perfumed; s, sweet; spr, sprightly; v, vinous.

Quality: b, best; g, good; m, medium; p, poor; vg, very good.

Season: e, early; m, medium; l, late; ve, very early; vl, very late.

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN CITATIONS OF AUTHORS AND PUBLICATIONS.

In this catalogue many publications are referred to in abbreviated form. These abbreviations will need to be well understood in order to obtain the best results from the study of its pages. Several classes of publications are referred to. Standard works are usually indicated by a single initial, as "D" for "Downing's Fruits and Fruit Trees of America," and wherever a "D" is found in connection with the date of the edition and number of the page it means that Downing's reference to the variety specified may be found in the edition referred to and on the page mentioned. Trade catalogues, agricultural experiment station bulletins, reports of societies, and periodical and other publications are referred to in a similar manner, each being fully explained in the following list:

ALPHABETIC LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS USED IN DESIGNATING THE PUBLICATIONS QUOTED.

- A..... Proceedings of the American Pomological Society, 1852 to 1905, inclusive.
- ACT..... A. Clark Tuttle, catalogue.
- ADB..... A. D. Barnes, catalogue.
- ADF&S..... Mrs. A. D. Freeman & Sons, catalogue.
- AgR..... Reports of the United States Department of Agriculture, 1847 to 1893, inclusive.
- AHCC&C... A. H. C. Chadbourne & Co., catalogue.
- AHG..... A. H. Griesa, catalogue.
- AHM..... American Horticultural Manual, Part 2, 1903, by Budd and Hansen.
- AHortA..... American Horticultural Annual, 1868 to 1871, inclusive.
- AJC..... Arthur J. Collins, catalogue.
- AJofH..... American Journal of Horticulture, monthly, volumes 1 (1867) to 9 (1871), inclusive.
- AlaB..... Bulletins of the Alabama Experiment Station, Nos. 30, 98, 106, 112 and 117.
- AlaNCo..... Alabama Nursery Company, catalogue.
- Al&H..... Alexander & Hammond, catalogue.
- AmAg..... American Agriculturist, weekly.
- AMassH..... Addresses of Massachusetts Horticultural Society.
- AMB..... Amherst (Massachusetts) Agricultural Experiment Station bulletins.
- AmF..... American Farmer, monthly, 1820 to 1881.
- AmGar..... American Gardening, 1883 to 1902.
- AndN..... Andorra Nurseries, catalogue, 1895.
- AN&OCo..... Albaugh Nursery and Orchard Co., catalogue, 1894.
- AofH..... Annals of Horticulture in North America, 1889 to 1893, inclusive.
- AP..... A. Pullen, catalogue.

- APC..... Report of the American Pomological Congress, vol. 1, 1850.
 ArizB..... Bulletin No. 15 of the Arizona Agricultural Experiment Station.
 ArkH..... Transactions of the Arkansas State Horticultural Society.
 ARW..... A. R. Whitney, catalogue, 1887.
 AS..... Special Report of the American Pomological Society, 1904-5.
 A&H..... Albertson & Hobbs, catalogue.
 B..... Barry's Fruit Garden, editions of 1851 and 1883, by Patrick Barry.
 BBCo..... Brown Bros. Co., catalogue, 1892.
 BBL..... Benjamin Buckman's List of Fruits in Trial Orchard.
 Bl..... The Culture of the Peach and Pear, edition of 1886, by John J. Black, M. D.
 B(Ph)N..... Bloomington (Phoenix) Nursery, catalogue.
 Bul..... Bulletins Nos. 6 and 8 of the Division of Pomology, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1897 and 1899.
 C..... A View of the Cultivation of Fruit Trees, edition of 1817, by William Coxe.
 CAG..... Charles A. Green, catalogue.
 CalB..... Bulletin No. 147 of the California Agricultural Experiment Station.
 CalSBofH... Reports of the California State Board of Horticulture, 1889 to 1902, except 1890 and 1899-1900.
 CanExFr.... Reports of Canada Experimental Farms, 1894 to 1905, inclusive.
 CanH..... Canadian Horticulturist, monthly, 1878 to 1905, inclusive.
 CB..... Bulletins of the Cornell (N. Y.) Agricultural Experiment Station.
 CBCo..... Chase Brothers Co., catalogue, 1895.
 CExFB..... Bulletins of the Central Experimental Farm, Canada.
 CExFR..... Reports of the Central Experimental Farm, Canada, 1894 to 1905, except 1897.
 CGen..... Country Gentleman, vols. 2 to 26, inclusive.
 ChNC..... Cherokee Nursery, catalogue, 1893.
 CLW..... Charles L. Watrous, catalogue, 1897.
 CNC..... California Nursery Co., catalogue, 1893 to 1895.
 C(O)HS.... Reports of Columbus (Ohio) Horticultural Society, 1886 to 1904, except 1890 and 1895.
 Cole..... The American Fruit Book, edition of 1849, by S. W. Cole.
 ColH..... Transactions of the Colorado State Horticultural Society, 1882 to 1905, with a few omissions.
 CtP..... Transactions of the Connecticut Pomological Society, 1891 to 1903, inclusive.
 Cult..... The Cultivator, 1834 to 1865, when the Cultivator was merged into the Country Gentleman.
 D..... The Fruits and Fruit-Trees of America, editions of 1845, 1857, and 1869, by A. J. and Charles Downing.
 Dap..... Appendixes 1, 2, and 3 to The Fruits and Fruit-Trees of America, 1872, 1876, and 1881, by Charles Downing.
 DomEnc.... Domestic Encyclopedia, first American edition, 1804, article on fruits, by Dr. James Mease.
 E..... Elliott's Fruit Book, or, the American Fruit Grower's Guide, editions of 1854 and 1859, by F. R. Elliott.
 EFABC.... Catalogue of Fruit Trees on Trial at the Experimental Farm, Agassiz, B. C., Canada, 1900.
 EWK..... E. W. Kirkpatrick, catalogue, 1894, 1901.
 EYT..... E. Y. Teas, catalogue, 1872, 1874.
 E&B..... Ellwanger & Barry, catalogue, 1890, 1894, 1895, 1901, 1902.

- F..... Pear Culture, edition of 1858, by Thomas W. Field.
 FDNCo..... Franklin Davis Nursery Company, catalogue.
 FEY..... Fred E. Young, catalogue.
 FF&S..... Frank Ford & Son, catalogue.
 FGAofO Reports of the Fruit Growers' Association of Ontario, Canada, 1882 to 1905, inclusive.
 FofO Fruits of Ontario, edition of 1898, by Linus Woolverton.
 FSP Frank S. Phoenix, catalogue.
 F&G Farmer and Gardener, 1843 (copied by Transactions of the Indiana Horticultural Society, 1882, p. 128).
 G The Northern Fruit Culturist, edition of 1849, by Chauncey Goodrich.
 GaH..... Proceedings of Georgia State Horticultural Society, 1876 to 1904, with a few omissions.
 GarCal..... The American Gardener's Calendar, by Bernard M'Mahon, 1806.
 GarM..... Gardeners' Monthly, 1859 to date, with omissions.
 Gb Nomenclature of our Russian Fruits, edition of 1887, by Charles Gibb.
 GB Greening Brothers, catalogue.
 GBB G. B. Brackett, catalogues, 1853, 1868, 1871.
 GCR George C. Roeding, catalogue.
 GenF The Genesee Farmer, 1832, 1833, 1834, 1837, 1838, 1839, 1840, 1841, and occasional numbers later.
 GHM&S George H. Miller & Son, catalogue.
 H Hooper's Western Fruit Book, edition of 1857, by E. J. Hooper.
 Ha Harcourt's Florida Fruits, edition of 1886, by Helen Harcourt.
 HAJ Horticultural Art Journal, monthly, 1886, 1887, 1888, 1889, 1890.
 HB Hand Book for Fruit Growers, editions of 1876 and 1903, by F. R. Elliott.
 HB&T..... Hoopes Brothers and Thomas, catalogue.
 HEH&B.... H. E. Hooker & Bro., catalogue, 1873.
 HMHS..... History of the Massachusetts Horticultural Society, edition of 1880, by Robert Manning.
 Hof..... Hoffs's North American Pomologist, 1860, edited by William D. Brinckle, M. D.
 Hort..... The Horticulturist, monthly, 1846 to 1875, inclusive.
 Hov..... The Fruits of America, in two volumes, edition of 1851, by Charles M. Hovey.
 Huc..... Huntsville Nursery Company, catalogue.
 IaB Bulletins of the Iowa Agricultural Experiment Station, Nos. 3 and 31.
 IaH Transactions of the Iowa State Horticultural Society, 1867 to 1905, except 1868 and 1870.
 IEI I. E. Ilgenfritz & Sons, catalogues, 1899, 1901, 1902.
 IIIH Transactions of the Illinois State Horticultural Society, 1860 to 1905, inclusive.
 IndF..... Indiana Farmer, monthly, 1840.
 IndH..... Transactions of the Indiana Horticultural Society, 1861 to 1905, inclusive.
 JB John Bidwell, catalogue, 1893.
 JBW&B J. B. Wild & Bro., catalogue, 1892.
 JSC&S..... John S. Collins & Son, catalogue.
 JSK John S. Kerr, catalogues, 1891, 1901.
 JVL John Van. Lindley, catalogues, 1893, 1895, 1896, 1899, and 1902.

- K..... The New American Orchardist, editions of 1832 and 1841, by William Kenrick.
- KanH..... Transactions of the Kansas State Horticultural Society, 1874 to 1905, except 1876.
- KanFM..... Kansas Fruit Manual, edition of 1886, by the State Horticultural Society.
- L..... Name modified by Mr. T. T. Lyon as chairman of a committee of the American Pomological Society.
- LaB..... Louisiana State Experimental Station, Bulletin No. 22.
- M..... The Book of Fruits, edition of 1838, by Robert Manning, revised and republished as the New England Fruit Book, by John M. Ives, in 1844 and again in 1847.
- MagofH..... The Magazine of Horticulture, monthly, 1835 to 1860, inclusive.
- MassH..... Transactions of the Massachusetts Horticultural Society, 1837 to 1905, with a few omissions.
- MdH..... Transactions of the Maryland State Horticultural Society, 1898 to 1905, inclusive.
- MeP..... Transactions of the Maine State Pomological Society, 1873 to 1905, inclusive.
- MHSC..... Transactions of Montreal (Canada) Horticultural Society, 1876 to 1888, inclusive.
- MichB..... Bulletins of the Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station, Nos. 31, 104, 105, 177, 187, 194, 205.
- MichH..... Transactions of the Michigan State Horticultural Society, 1870 to 1903, inclusive.
- MichHort... Michigan Horticulturist, monthly, January to December, 1886, inclusive.
- MichSB..... Special Bulletins of the Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station, Nos. 27, 30, and 35.
- MinnH..... Transactions of the Minnesota State Horticultural Society, 1874 to 1904, inclusive.
- MoH..... Transactions of the Missouri State Horticultural Society, 1859 to 1904, except 1874, 1875, 1876, 1877, and 1878.
- MVHS..... Transactions of the Mississippi Valley (later the American) Horticultural Society, 1883 to 1888, inclusive.
- N..... Northwestern Pomology, edition of 1894, by C. W. Gurney.
- NAPC..... Transactions of the North American Pomological Convention, 1849.
- NebH..... Transactions of the Nebraska State Horticultural Society, 1885 to 1905, inclusive.
- NJH..... Transactions of the New Jersey Horticultural Society, 1876 to 1906, inclusive.
- NSFG..... Transactions of the Nova Scotia Fruit Growers' Association.
- NWC..... N. W. Craft, catalogue.
- NWFG..... Transactions of the North Western Fruit Growers' Association, 1851, 1852, 1855.
- NYC..... New York Agricultural Experiment Station Circular, 1890.
- OH..... Transactions of the Ohio State Horticultural Society, 1863 to 1904, except 1868, 1873, and 1899.
- OntFG..... Transactions of the Fruit Growers' Association of Ontario, Canada, 1869 to 1905, except 1880 and 1881.
- OreH..... Biennial Reports of the Oregon State Board of Horticulture, 1891 to 1903, inclusive.
- P..... Reports of the United States Pomologist, 1887 to 1895, inclusive,

- PaFS..... Reports of the Pennsylvania Fruit Growers' Society, 1867 to 1876, inclusive.
- PF..... Prairie Farmer.
- PH..... Transactions of the Peninsula Horticultural Society, 1888 to 1906, inclusive.
- PJB..... P. J. Berckmans Co., catalogues, 1901, 1903, 1906.
- PNCo..... Pioneer Nursery Company, catalogue.
- Pr..... The Pomological Manual, edition of 1831, by William R. Prince.
- Q..... Pear Culture for Profit, editions of 1869 and 1883, by P. T. Quinn.
- R..... Name modified by W. H. Ragan as chairman of a committee of the American Pomological Society.
- R&P..... Rakestraw & Pyle, catalogue.
- S..... Fruit Culture, edition of 1885, by William C. Strong.
- SBros..... Stark Brothers, catalogue, 1901.
- SRofA..... Special Report of the American Pomological Society, 1904-5.
- St..... South Haven, Michigan, Experiment Station, list of Mr. T. T. Lyon.
- SW..... Silas Wharton's catalogue, as republished in Transactions of the Indiana Horticultural Society for 1872, 108.
- S&H..... Storrs & Harrison, catalogue.
- T..... The American Fruit Culturist, editions of 1875, 1885, and 1897, by J. J. Thomas.
- Th..... The American Orchardist, edition of 1822, by James Thacher, M. D.
- TVM..... T. V. Munson & Son, catalogues, 1889, 1891, 1892, 1893, 1894, 1896, 1899, 1900, 1902, 1903, and 1904.
- VaH..... Transactions of the Virginia State Horticultural Society, 1898 to 1904, inclusive.
- WashH..... Biennial Reports of the Washington State Board of Horticulture, 1891-2, 1893-4, 1895-6.
- Wg..... The Fruit Growers' Hand Book, edition of 1851, by W. G. Waring.
- WHR..... Western Horticultural Review, monthly, vols. 1 (1850-1), 2 (1851-2), 3 (1852-3), and 4 (1854).
- WisH..... Transactions of the Wisconsin State Horticultural Society, 1870 to 1905, inclusive.
- WisHort..... Wisconsin Horticulturist, monthly, March, 1897, to February, 1903, inclusive.
- WmP..... William Parry, catalogue.
- Wn..... The California Fruits and How to Grow Them, 1st, 2d, and 3d editions, by Prof. E. J. Wickson.
- WNYH..... Transactions of Western New York Horticultural Society, 1876 to 1905, except 1877, 1878, 1884, and 1885.
- WPr..... A Short Treatise on Horticulture, edition of 1828, by William Prince.
- WSL&Co... William S. Little & Co., catalogue.
- W&TSC..... William & T. Smith Co., catalogue.
- YB..... Yearbook of the United States Department of Agriculture, 1894 to 1905, inclusive.

CATALOGUE-INDEX OF THE KNOWN VARIETIES OF PEARS REFERRED TO IN AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS FROM 1804 TO 1907.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Abbe de Beaumont. D'69,651. A'73,76. Hort'74,148. Syn. of Beaumont.									
Abbe Edouard. D'57,448, '66,664. F276. E'39,357. T'75,536, '85,550, '97,662. GaH.									
Abbe. Syn. of Edouard.									
Abbe Berriay. D'57,448, '66,664. Syn. of Berriay.									
Abbe Mongin. D'57,448, '66,664. Syn. of Mongin.									
Abbe Parrot. D'57,448, '66,664. Syn. of Parrot.									
Abbe. Hort'47,241, '66,100. MagoffH'48,100, '54,472. Colei59. E'54,248, '59,357.	R. I.	oblp	m	gyru	bjm	sp	g	me	Originated at Providence, R. I., on farm of Mrs. Abbott.
H118. D'57,448, '66,664. Agr'54,248, '56,330. F272. T'75,298, '85,287, '97,466. B'83, 378. A'62,064. Bulb.									
Abbott. Hort'47,241, '66,100. MagoffH'48,100, '54,472. Colei59. E'54,248, '59,357.									
Abbret. L. Syn. Fondante Abbott.	For.								Published by Field, p. 280.
Abercrombie. A'69,51, '73,119. Syn. of Abercromby.									A chance seedling originated in Tallapoosa County, Ala.
Abercromby. D'69,654. Syns. Abercrombie, Abercromby's Seedling.	Ala.	obop	m	gyru	gj	sv	g	me	
Abercromby's Seedling. D'69,654. Syn. of Abercromby.			vi					vi	Described in Andorra catalogue for 1895 as very large and late.
Abrus. R. Syn. Belle des Aubres.									Found growing in Australia by F. M. Webster.
Achan. MagoffH'43,130. Syns. Black Achan, Green Achan.	Cal.	p	l	yrur	cm	jv			Originated by Mr. A. Block, Santa Clara, Cal.
Acme. L. CalSBotH'92,359. A'95,68. Syn. Block's Acme.									Originated at Waltham, Mass., and introduced in 1848.
A courte queue. Pr43. GenF'33,196. D'45,378, '57,436, '69,880. Hov1185. Syn. of White Doyenne.									
Adams. Colei60. Hov1191. MagoffH'53,39, '54,464. E'54,388, '59,357. A'54,153, '62, 66. Agr'56,405. D'57,449, '66,664. F272. AHortA'70,71. T'75,258, '85,276, '97,456.	Mass.	obop	l	yr	jm	v	vg	me	
B'83,378. KanH'85,316.									
Adelaide. L. Syns. Adelaide de Reves, Madam Adelaide.	Belg.	oblp	l	gyru	mj	vs	g	m	
Adelaide de Reves. D'57,449, '66,664. F276. E'56,357. T'75,536, '85,550, '97,663.									
Syn. of Adelaide.									
Adelle de St. Cerrus. MagoffH'49,107, '52,39. E'54,349. H118. D'69,664. T'85,277.									
Syn. of Mello.									
Adelle de St. Denis. MassH'51,189. WHRI'04. E'54,349, '56,357. D'57,453, '66,664.									
T'97,603. Syn. of Mello.									
Adelle Lancelot. MagoffH'50,218. D'69,655. Syn. of Lancelot.									
Adelle St. Dennis. MagoffH'52,150. Syn. of Mello.									
A deux yeux. F276. Syn. of Jargonelle (Fr.).									
Adiem. R. Syn. Beurre Adiem.									
Admirable. MagoffH'59,207. D'69,655. Syns. Dana's Admirable, Dana's No. 3.	Mass.	rov	ml	yrur	jm	v	g	me	Exhibited at Michigan State Fair, 1876. Not described.
Admiral. Pr66. Syn. Poir d'Admiral.		p		gru		s		me	Originated by Francis Dana, Boston, Mass.
Admiral. K'32,191, '41,159. GenF'37,278. A'54,237. Syn. of Cardinal.									Described by Duhamel.

(Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.)

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Admiral</i> . E'54,388, '50,417. Syn. of Farragut.									
<i>Admiral Gracie</i> . E'F BC'11, '62,32, '65,24. Syn. of Cecil.									
<i>Admiral Farragut</i> . Mass. A'101,11,22,3. D'69,655. A'69,46.									
<i>Admiral Massé</i> . A'101,11,22,3. D'69,655. A'69,46.									
<i>Admiral A'69,73</i> . Galt'68,50. Syn. of Farragut.	Mass.								Originated at Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1862.
<i>Admiral Foote</i> . Mass'66,44.									
<i>Adolphe Cutcher</i> . D'69,655. Syn. of Catchet.									
<i>Adolphe</i> . L. Syn. Adolphine Richard.	Belg.	p	m	ybr	j	vs	g	ml	
<i>Adolphine Richard</i> . Magoff'60,218. D'69,655. Syn. of Adolphine.									
<i>Aelens</i> . L. Syn. Roussette Aelens.	Belg.	obop	m	yru	mj	sp			From Annals of Pomology. One of Bivort's introductions. Published by Field, p. 276.
<i>Affre</i> . L. Syn. Monseigneur Affre.	Belg.	r	ms	gru	com	s	g	m	
<i>Agathe</i> . L. Syn. Agathe de L'Escur.	For.								
<i>Agathe de L'Escur</i> . F'76. Syn. of Agathe.									
<i>Agathe Gregoire</i> . Magoff'57,238, '60,19. D'69,655.	Belg.	obtp	m	yrb	mj	p	g	vl	From Jardin Van Mons.
<i>A. Gobert</i> . D'69,661. Syn. of Angobert.		rov	m	gyru	jn	p		me	Described by Col. M. P. Wilder in the Horticulturist, 1854, p. 83.
<i>Agreable</i> . L. Syn. Fondante Agreeable.									
<i>Ahl Mon Dieu</i> . Cult'39,66. K'41,120. D'45,383, '57,571, '60,656. Mass'44,151. A'54,237. E'54,384, '50,420. Syn. of Mon Dieu.									
<i>Aimé Ogereau</i> . A'71,56. O'H'71,46.									Probably same as Ogereau. Introduced in 1857.
<i>Aïroles</i> (Gegleiro). L. Syn. Jules d'Aïroles (De X. Gregoire).	Belg.	t	m	yrb	coj	svp	m	me	Raised at Laval by Leon Leclerc.
<i>Aïroles</i> (Leclerc). L. Syn. Jules d'Aïroles (de Leon Leclerc).	Fr.	robtp	m	gyru	jn	svp	vg	ml	Not described.
<i>Akato</i> . Acoff'91,206.									Not described.
<i>Akatsapo</i> . Acoff'91,206.									Originated by A. L. Bruce, Grayson County, Tex.
<i>Alamo</i> . JSK'97,96, '01. P'H'97,19. TVM'90, '00. IIIH'99,219. EWK'01. HuC'01.	Tex.	l	l	yb	bm			e	Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.
<i>Bulg.</i> AHM'232. F'J'R'06.									
<i>Albert</i> . L. Syns. Pear d'Albert, Poire Prince Albert, Princes Albert.	Belg.	oblp	ml	ybru	j			vl	Not described.
<i>Albertine</i> . Magoff'52,298. WHH'1559. D'69,742. IEI'99, '01, '02. Syn. of Boussock.									Introduced in 1846.
<i>Alberty</i> . F'76.									
<i>Albret</i> . L. T'97,663. Syns. Beurre d'Albret, Beurre Delbret, Calebasse d'Albret, Dalbret, Pear d'Albret, Poire d'Albret, Poire d'Albut.	Eur.	p	ml	yru	jbm	vp	vg	m	
<i>Albret</i> (Pon.). L. Syn. Fondante d'Albret.									
<i>Alencon</i> . L. T'97,482. Syns. Doyenne d'Alencon, Doyenne d'Hiver d'Alencon, Doyenne d'Hiver Nouveau, Doyenne Gris d'Hiver, Doyenne Gris d'Hiver Noveau, Doyenne Marthe, New Gray Winter Vergalleu, New Winter Gray Doyenne, St. Michael d'Hiver.	Fr.	rob	ml	yru	cojm	svp	g-vg	me	A foreign variety of unknown origin.
<i>St. Michael d'Hiver</i> .		rov	m	yru	gbj	p	vg	vl	
<i>Alexander</i> . D'57,449, '69,650. Magoff'58,135. Hort'58,54. F'772. T'75,538, '85,550, '97, 663.	N. Y.	obtp	m	yru	glm	s	vg	m	Originated in the town of Alexander, N. Y.
<i>Alexander Chomier</i> . EFABC'00. Syn. of Chomier.									
<i>Alexander de Russie</i> . Cult'39,66. Syn. of Alexander of Russia.									Rejected by Congress of Fruit Growers, 1846.
<i>Alexander of Russia</i> . Magoff'50,295. Cult'50,46. A'54,237. Syn. Alexander de Russia.									

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Ananas Francis</i> . D'60,690. Syn. of <i>Ananas d'Eté</i> . <i>Ananas</i> (of Manning and Leroy). MassH'44,50. D'45,350, 57,450, 69,660. E'54,339, 59,323. Syn. of <i>Ananas d'Eté</i> . <i>Anastere</i> . L. Syns. <i>Blanquet Anastere</i> , <i>Blanquet Anastertique</i> , <i>Blanquet d'Austrasie</i> . <i>Anderson</i> . D'69,835. Syn. of <i>Pound</i> . <i>Andersson</i> . <i>Parottie</i> . SW. Ind F'40,186. WHR164,1177. D'69,751. Syn. of <i>East</i> <i>Bergamot</i> . <i>André Desportes</i> . D'60,660. MassH'73,96. B'83,362. T'85,551, 97,003. E&B'90. E&B'100. MassH'73,96. B'83,362. T'85,551, 97,003. E&B'90. <i>Andrews</i> . W. G. of H. 37,41. 44,394, 47,430, M'38,74, 44,531, 47,61. D'45,840, 57,451, 69,660. 54,339. E'54,248, 59,358. H'119. F'226. B'53,362, 83,374. W'994. H'10,107. AGR. <i>Andrews</i> . (Kings). L. Syns. <i>Amory</i> , <i>Beurre Oudinot</i> , <i>Gibson</i> , <i>Oudinot</i> . <i>Andrews</i> . (Kings). L. Syns. <i>Amory</i> , <i>Beurre Oudinot</i> , <i>Gibson</i> , <i>Oudinot</i> . <i>Andrews' Kingessing</i> . D'69,794. Syn. of <i>Andrews</i> (King). <i>Andusson</i> . L. Syns. <i>Beurre Andusson</i> , <i>Lucie Andusson</i> . <i>Angel</i> . MagofH'43,123. Syn. of <i>Angel</i> . <i>Angeli</i> . L. T'97,693. IllH'97,213. BBL. Syns. <i>Ange</i> , <i>Angel Pear</i> , <i>Poire d'Ange</i> . <i>Angelic pear</i> . P'79. Syn. of <i>Angellique</i> . <i>Angellique</i> . R. P'79. Syns. <i>Angelle pear</i> , <i>Angellique de Bordeaux</i> , <i>Angellique de Rome</i> , <i>Crestaline</i> , <i>Gros Franc Real d'Hiver</i> , <i>Gros Franc Real</i> or <i>Franc Real</i> , <i>St. Martial</i> , <i>Salnt Martial</i> . <i>Angellique de Bordeaux</i> . P'79. K'32,142, 41,124. F'276. D'69,660. Syn. of <i>Angellique</i> . <i>Angellique de Rome</i> . P'80. K'32,142, 41,124. <i>Angellique de Rome</i> . P'79. MassH'47,69. Syn. of <i>Angellique</i> . <i>Angellique de Rome</i> . F'276. Syn. of <i>Angellique</i> (Rome). <i>Angellique Le Clerc</i> . Syn. of <i>Leclerc</i> (Angellique). <i>Angellique</i> (Rome). L. Syn. <i>Angellique de Rome</i> . <i>Angel Pear</i> . P'25. A'J'95. Syn. of <i>Angel</i> . <i>Angers</i> . MassH'47,69. MagofH'50,296. A'54,237. <i>Angletierre</i> . C102. P'55. K'32,134, 41,121. D'45,351, 57,453, 69,661. E'54,338, 59,417. H'120. F'276. T'75,336, 83,351, 97,661. E&B'90. Syns. <i>Almond Pear</i> , <i>Angletierre</i> or <i>English Beurre</i> , <i>Archiduc Charles</i> , <i>Bee d'Or</i> , <i>Beurre Amande</i> , <i>Beurre d'Angletierre</i> , <i>Beurre Judes</i> , <i>Dobbel Amandel</i> (of the Dutch), <i>English Beurre</i> , <i>Long de Monkouty</i> , <i>Longue de Markouts</i> , <i>Longue de Monkowitz</i> , <i>Longue de Nakourts</i> , <i>Monkouthy</i> , <i>Noisette</i> , <i>Poire d'Angletierre</i> .	Fr.....	p.....	s.....	gyb.....	co.....	p.....	me.....	Of no special value.
Fr.....	obtp.....	m.....	gyb.....	jgm.....	s.....	e.....	Originated in 1854 by André Leroy of Angers, France. A valuable American variety.
Massa.....	p.....	l.....	gyr.....	jgm.....	v.....	vg.....	me.....	
Pa.....	oblp.....	m.....	yr.....	cod.....	p.....	me.....	Not valuable.
Fr.....	robtp.....	ml.....	yr.....	djm.....	sp.....	m.....	Raised by Alexis Andusson, of Angers, France.
Eur.....	yg.....	co.....	sa.....	me.....	An old and probably obsolete variety.
Fr.....	obtp.....	m.....	gybr.....	bjm.....	vl.....	Described by Hogg.
For.....	Probably distinct from Angellique.
For.....	obl.....	m.....	y.....	m.....	s.....	vl.....	Published by Field in undescribed list.
Fr.....	oblp.....	l.....	gru.....	bjm.....	g.....	me.....	Exhibited by Robert Manning in 1847. An old French variety.

Arenberg (Duchesse). L. Syn. Duchesse d'Arenberg. Arenberg (Sum.). L. Syna. Summer Arenberg. Summer Beurre d'Arenberg.	Fr.... Eng....	obtp ovt	m ms	g yru	codj dmj	g vp	me me	Raised by Thomas Rivers, of Eng- land. Published in Magazine of Horti- culture, 1843, p. 131. This may prove to be Pound. See Missouri Horticultural Re- port, 1886, p. 37.
Argentine. R. Syn. Inconnue Argentine. Arkansas. R. Syn. Arkansas Mammoth.								An old variety; perhaps of little value.
Arkansas Mammoth. MoH'87,96,'96,37. NYC'90. C(O)HS'92,32. Syn. of Ar- kansas.								
Arlequin. L. Syn. Arlequin Musque.		obop	l	ygb	bm	s	g me	On trial at Agassiz, B. C., experi- ment station. Said to resemble Glout Moreau.
Arlequin Musque. F276. D'96,662. Syn. of Arlequin							g l	
Arion. R. Syn. Beurre d'Arion								In rejected list of Congress of Fruit Growers, 1849.
Arnaud Morel. AndN'95. Syn. Arnaud Morel		robo	ms	ybr	dbj		g m	Originated in 1853.
Arnaud Morel. EFABC'00. Syn. of Arnaud Morel	Belg.							In field as last described list.
Armenian. P'107. K'32,136,'41,128. Syn. of Double Flower	For	oblp	m	yru	bjm	sv	g vi	Originated in 1801.
Armenic. P'107. K'32,136. Syn. of Double Flower	Ind....							On trial at Agassiz, B. C., experi- ment station.
Armudi. A'54,237.								
Arnaud. L. Syn. Beurre de Saint Arnaud.		robo	ms	ybr	dbj		g m	
Arnaud Blivot. F276.	Belg.							
Arnaud. IndH'91,153,92,103,'94,144 O H'92,71,'01,29. C(O)HS'92,130. MassH'93,249.	For	oblp	m	yru	bjm	sv	g vi	
Aromatic Winter. EFABC'00.	Ind....							
Artichoke. D'69,850. Syn. of Saint Germain.								
Arthur Blivot. D'69,662. Syn. of Blivot (Art).		oblp	l	gyru	bjm		g-g me	Highly esteemed by some.
Artola. L. Syna. Beau Present d'Artola, Present Royal de Nantes, Present Royal	For	oblp	l	yru	bjm			
de Naples.		obtp	l	yru	cojm	v	g m	
Artolsemet. L. Syn. Colmar Artolsemet.	Belg.							
Ascension. EFABC'00.								
Ashdon Town. P'129. GenF'37,277. D'45,351. Syn. of Aston.								
Aspasia d'Ancoart. EFABC'00.								
Assomption. L. T'97,663. Syna. Beurre Assomption, Beurre d'Assomption,	For....	oblp	l	yr	dmjg	sa	e	
Beurre del Assomption, Beurre de l'Assomption.		rt	s	yb	db	sp	g-p me	
Aston. L. Syna. Ashton Town, Aston Town								
Aston Town. K'32,159,'41,168. GenF'33,196. Cult'39,66. WHR'1,130. A'54,237.								
E'54,380,'59,417. D'57,563,66,662. T'75,536,'85,551,'97,663. KanH'92,136. IaH'94,509.								
EFABC'00. Syn. of Aston.								
A Teigne. D'69,884. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Win.)								
Aubitch. R. Syn. Beurre d'Aubitch.								
Auch. L. Syna. Bon Chretien d'Auch, Bon Chretien Panache, D'Auch.		p	l	gyru	jm	s	l	
Audibert. D'69,662. Syn. Belle Audibert.		obtp	l	y	cog	sa	g m	
Audibert. D'69,688. Syn. of Duval.								
Audisson. L. Syna. Anna Audisson, Beurre Anna Audisson, Doyenne Anna	Fr...	robtg	m	ygru	jm	s	g-g m	Originated at Angers, France.
Audisson.								
Audisson. T'97,663. Syn. of Ridelles.								

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Auger</i> . F276. D'69 667. Syn. of Beauvalot.									
<i>Augere</i> . D'68 667. Syn. of Beauvalot.									
<i>Augiere</i> . MassH 46 667. Syn. of Beauvalot.									
<i>Aguete Benoit</i> . A'62 66. Syn. of Benoit.									
<i>Aguete Boyer</i> . F276. Syn. of Royer.									
<i>Aguete de Cologne</i> . F276. Syn. of Royer.									
<i>Aguete de Marais</i> . Hort 58, 78. E 99 396. D'69 664. T'75 337, '85 531, '97 663. Syn. of Koning.									
<i>Aguete Jure</i> . D'69 662. Syn. of Jure.									
<i>Aguete Lelieur</i> . D'69 663. Syn. of Lelieur.									
<i>Aguete Mignard</i> . GenM 72 272. H'128 74. WNYH 93 44 '96 25. Syn. of Mignard.									
<i>Aguete Rousset</i> . Mag 13 157 253. D'57 453, '69 663. AHort 71 63. T'75 260, '85 267, '97 465. EFABC'00. Syn. of Royer. F282. E'99 349. Syn. of Soldat.									
<i>Aguete Van Kraus</i> . D'57 543, '69 856. F282. E'99 349. Syn. of Soldat.									
<i>Augusta</i> . L. Syn. Poire de Pise, Saint Augustin, St. Augustin.	For.	ovip	m	gyb	p			l	An old variety; probably of little value.
<i>Augusta Daly</i> . CalB 147 72.									Not described.
<i>Augustine Lelieur</i> . F276. D'69 663. Syn. of Lelieur.									
<i>August Muscat</i> . K'32 126, '41 118. GenF 37, 277. Syn. of Aurate.									
<i>August</i> . III 1167 242. Syn. of Richardson.									
<i>August Perfume</i> . Pr23. K'41 119. D'69 828. Syn. of Perfume.	Belg.	p	m	gyru	dmj	svp		me	Raised by Dr. John Van Mons. Catalogued in 1823.
<i>August Rousset</i> . L. Syn. Gros Rousset d'Aout.	Mass.	obtp	m	gyru	jm	sp	g-vg	m	Originated by Francis Dana, of Boston, Mass.
<i>Augustus</i> . L. Syn. Augustus Dana, Dana's No. 10.									
<i>Augustus Dana</i> . MagOH 60 267 500. MassH 65 45, '66 46, '82 38. A'67 157. D'69 663. GenX XII 1190. T'75 260, '85 267, '97 466. Wn1 333, II 342. CanFE x R'95 392.									
<i>EFABC'00</i> . Syn. of Augustus.									
<i>Aumale</i> . L. Syn. Duc d'Aumale, Gedeon Paridant, Gideon Paridante.	Belg.	obtp	m	ybm	j	sa	g-vg	me	Originated by Dr. John Van Mons. Supposed to have originated in France.
<i>Aunenlere</i> . L. Syn. Beurre Aunenlere.	Fr.	robip	m	gy	jm	sa	g	m	An early seedling in Massachusetts Colony.
<i>Aunt Desire</i> . HMHS4.	Mass.								An old variety now unknown.
<i>Aurate</i> . C181. Pr12. K'32 126, '41 118. GenF 37, 277. H120. F276. D'69 663. Syn. August Muscat, Auratta, Muscat d'Aout, Muscat de Nancy, Musk or Spice, Poire doree.		p	s	yg	j	v	vg	ve	
<i>Auralla</i> . SW. Syn. of Aurate.									
<i>Auray</i> . L. Syn. Supreme d'Auray.									
<i>Asore</i> . F278. D'69 682. Syn. of Caplaumont.	For.								In Field's undescribed list.
<i>Asstama Bergamot</i> . IaH 84 599. IaB3. FGaO 91 11. AHM234. Syn. Autumn Bergamot (of the Volge), Bergamot Oseenui, Bergamotte Oseui (of Rege).	Rus.?	r	l					m	A Russian variety of doubtful value.

	obtp	m	gru	gb	v	g	m	
<i>Autumn Bergamot</i> , GaCal857, WPp-9, K'32,133, GenF'33,196, '37,277, Cult'39,95, D'4,366, '57,565, '69,693, E'54,389, '59,417, A'54,237, Agr'54,251, MichH'73,343, Syn. of Bergamot (Aut. d'Automne).								
<i>Autumn Bergamot</i> , K'41,121, IUH'68,311, KanH'82,136, Syn. of Bergamotte d'Automne.								
<i>Autumn Bergamot</i> (of the Volga), MHSC'82,55, FGAofo'83,220, Syn. of Autumn Bergamot.								
<i>Autumn Bon Christen</i> , Pr147, Syn. of Harrison.								
<i>Autumn Bon Christen</i> , Pr 93, D'69,858, Syn. of Spanish.								
<i>Autumn Bounty</i> , K'32,135, 41,126, MagoffH'37,15, Syn. of Bounty.								
<i>Autumn Burgamot</i> , SW, Syn. of Bergamot (Aut.).								
<i>Autumn Catherine</i> , Pr50, D'69,846, Syn. of Rheims.								
<i>Autumn Colmar</i> , Pr187, K'32,139, 41,141, GenF'33,196, '37,277, Cult'39,66, '48,369, D'45,353, '57,453, '69,663, E'54,389, '59,417, H'1290, F276, F'75,537, '85,551, '97,694, Syn. Colmar d'Automne.	Fr...	obtp	m	gru	gb	v	g	m
<i>Autumn Colmar</i> , D'57,570, '69,724, Syn. of Summer Colmar.								
<i>Autumn Hardepaout</i> , L, Syns. Beurre d'Hardenpaout, d'Automne, Wilfred.								
<i>Autumn Meeting</i> , W'66, D'68,762, Syn. of Lucrative.								
<i>Autumn Mouthwater</i> , Pr68, Syn. of Long Green.								
<i>Autumn Mouthwater</i> , D'69,804, T'98,282, Syn. of Long Green (Aut.).								
<i>Autumn Nells</i> , D'69,664, AHofA'70,68, Syns. Graham's Autumn Nells, Graham's Bergamot.	Eng	obop	m	gyru	bgm	p	vg	m
<i>Autumn Paradise</i> , Agr'50,94, '67,139, E'54,340, H'1290, T'75,258, '85,276, '97,457, Syn. of Paradise.								
<i>Autumn Poth's Bergamotte</i> , CanH'90,238, Syn. of Sapioganka.								
<i>Autumn South</i> , MagoffH'37,15, M'38,75, '44,60, K'41,168, A'54,237, H'1291, D'69,657, Syn. of Amadotte.								
<i>Aur Traites</i> , F280, Syn. of Forale.								
<i>Aur Traites</i> , L, Syn. Ernestine Auxelle.	Fr...	tp	s	gyru	cojm	s	m	
<i>Avalon</i> , R. Syn. Beurre d'Avalon.								
<i>Avanche</i> , Pr97, K'32,146, Syn. of Louise Bonne.								
<i>Avocat, Pear Royal, Muscat Pear of August</i> , Pr33, K'32,131, Syn. of Robine.								
<i>Avocat</i> , R. Syn. Avocat Nells.								
<i>Avocat Allard</i> , AJoH'11,30.	Belg...		s				vg	
<i>Avocat Nells</i> , MagoffH'37,258, MassH'62,32, Syn. of Avocat.								
<i>Avocat Tonneller</i> , EFABC'00.								
<i>Avolaie</i> , L, Syn. Beurre d'Avolaie.	Belg?	ob	m	gyru	jm	s	g-vg	m
<i>Avorai</i> , Pr33, Syn. of Robine.								
<i>Avorai</i> , Robine, Muscat d'Avorai, August Muscat, Pr33, Syn. of Robine.								
<i>Avril</i> , '68,664, Syns. D'Avril, Poire d'Avril.	robtp	l	gyru	gyru	uj	s	g	l
<i>Ayer</i> , P'96,37, A'97,44, AUM234.	obop	m	gyru	gyru	uj	sa	vg	mc
<i>Baba</i> , Gh, CanExFG'96,135, FESoFo'98,129, FGAofo'00,18, EFABC'00, Syn. Grusha Baba.								
<i>Bachelor</i> , D'69,673, Syns. Bachelor, Beurre Bachelor, Chevalier.								
<i>Bachelor</i> , Cult'40,181, Syn. of Bachelor.	Fr...	obtp	ml	gyru	bjm	vp	vg	l

Published by Lirdley.

Tree much like Winter Nells.

In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.

Published in Magazine of Horticulture 1857, p. 258. One of Gregoire's numerous seedlings.

In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.

Originated by O. H. Ayer, Lawrence, Kan. Considerably disseminated in the Canadian provinces. Introduced in 1845.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.		Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Bachmann.	R. Syn. Dr. Bachmann	S. C.	r	m	gr	j	v			In Transactions American Pomological Society, 1867, p. 190, as "Dr. Bachmann." A new Canadian variety.
Backholda.	CanH'94,291	Can.	obl	l	y		sa	m		Received from Alexander Bivort, First fruited in 1848. Described by Leroy.
Bachm's.	GenF'33,196									Doubtless same as Backholda.
Bagpipe of Anjou.	Pr15, D'69,775	Fr.		m	gru	mj	a	m		An old haking variety. Published by Thacher, p. 193.
Bagpipe of Anjou.	Pr13, Syn. of Pastorale	Fr.	p	l	ygb	djng	s	m		Raised by Gov. Edwards, New Haven, Conn.
Baquet.	R. Syn. Beurre Baguet	Mass.						l		Not described.
Bailey.	L. Syn. Beurre Bailey	Conn.								Catalogued by Silas Wharton in 1824.
Bakholda.	CanH'94,291									Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1843, p. 131, as "Jallal Ballarde."
Baking.	L. Syn. Winter Baking									Mentioned by J. H. Haynos, of Indiana, in Horticulturist, 1873, p. 37.
Baking.	MagofH'40,43									Possibly same as Baltet.
Bel Armadi.	MagofH'42,376									Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1837, p. 51.
Balderston.	R. Syn. Balderston's									Grown by Ellwanger & Barry. Originated in Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1868.
Balderston's.	SW. Syn. of Balderston									Published in Annals of Pomology. Originated by Andre Leroy, of Algeria, France.
Ballarde.	R. Syn. Jallal Ballarde									Raised by Ghegore, of Belgium. In the collection at Agassiz, B. C.
Ballet.	R. Syn. Beurre Ballet									
Baltet Pere.	R. Syn. Beurre Baltet Pere									
B. Amanite.	IIIH'33,589									
Bancroft.	D'69,720									
Bancroft.	R. Syn. Bancroft's Hamburg									
Bancroft's Hamburg.	MagofH'37,51									
Band de la Cour.	D'69,281									
Bankerline.	E'51,340, 59,359									
Banks.	MassH'66,46									
Banana.	D'69,701									
Baptiste.	L. Syn. Jan Baptiste Bivort									
Barbancinet.	F276, MagofH'60,126									
Barbe Nella.	MagofH'65,150, 57,258									
Beriliet.	EFAB'00									
Barker.	III'21									

Barland. C212. P209. GenF'33,197,37,278. MagofH'37,60. CGenX,230.	Eng...	ov	s	gru		Known in 1874. Raised for perry only. Not described.	
Barnadiston. MagofH'51,472.							
Barnard. Lovi,51. Syn. of Flemish.							
Barnett's William. D'69,666. Syn. of Bartlett.	Fr.	obtp	ml	ynu	jm s g-vg me	Originated by Andre Leroy, Angers, France. In the collection at Agassiz, B. C. In the collection at Agassiz, B. C.	
Barny. L. Syns. Lortol de Barney. Lortol de Barny.							
Baron. EFABC'00.							
Baron de Caters. EFABC'00.							
Baron de Geer. A'75,08. Dapl55. Syn. of Henri Van Mons.							
Baron Deman de Lennick. MagofH'60,218. D'69,664. Syn. of Deman.							
Baron de Mello. AgrR'36,367. Wnl 333,11,342. IIIH'96,186. Syn. of Mello.							
Baronne de Mello. MaasiH'51,189. WHR,II,559. E'54,355,96,357. T'75,258,85,277,97,457. A'75,08. D'69,664. B'83,966. EFABC'00. Syn. of Mello.							
Baronne Leroy. Hort'73,37. EFABC'00.							
Baronsblirne. CanExFR'03,422.		oblp	l	gz	1	In the trial orchard at Agassiz, B. C. In the trial orchard at Agassiz, B. C. Exhibited at meeting of Massachusetts Horticultural Society, August, 1893. An old variety reintroduced and renamed.	
Baron Treyve. MaasiH'73,96.				g	g		
Barronne de Melle. D'57,453. Syn. of Mello.							
Bary. MagofH'54,225. D'57,453,96,665. E'50,250. T'75,258,85,277,97,457. Mich SB'7. MolI'92,233,236. IIIH'96,178. Syns. De Lesumieres, De Lesumire, Doyenne Bary.	Eur.						
Bary. A'75,38. MaasiH'76,95. CanI'93,58. MichB194. AHM234. Syn. of P. Bary.							
Bareck. R. Syns. Bar-Seck, Bar-Seckel, Bartlett-Seckel, Bartseckle, Columbia.	N. Y.	oblp	l	gy	jm v	Raised by Jacob Moore, Rochester, N. Y., from Seckel×Bartlett.	
Bar-Seck. WNYH'90,175. Syn. of Barsack.							
Bar-Seckel. WNYH'91,134. E&B'94,30. Syn. of Barsack.							
Barseckle. NYC'90. Syn. of Barsack.							
Bartlett. Pr137,214. K'41,155. WPr12. D'45,334,57,421,69,666. ColeI'56. HovII,11, B'51,290,83,362. G'83. E'54,311,59,324. H121. F190. Hort'53,350,70,360,71,183. F192. T'75,258,85,288,97,451. D1228. Wnl,325,11,258. MeH'99,138. Syns. Barnett's William, Bartlett (of all American Gardens), Bartlett or Williams Bon Chretien, Bon Chretien Barnett, Clement Doyenne, Delavault, Delavault de Clement, Poire Guillaume (of the French), Summer St. Michael, Williams, Williams Bon Chretien.	Eng.	oblp	l	yeu bjm sp	vg me	The most universally popular pear. In California it is indorsed as four times more valuable than any other variety.	
Bartlett (of all American Gardens). D'45,334,57,421. Syn. of Bartlett.							
Bartlett or Williams Bon Chretien. D'45,334,57,421,69,666. HovII,11, H121.							
Bartlett. F190. T'75,258,85,288. Syn. of Bartlett.							
Bartlett-Seckel. C(O)HS'92,32. IIIH'96,45,180. MichB177,194. SBro. FDNC'01.	Mass.						
FFSofO'02,71. Syn. of Barsack.							
Bartlett Seedling. MagofII'40,173.							
Bartram. MagofH'39,395. Hort'60,258. A'60,121,69,44,99,15. D'69,667. T'75,537,56,551,97,894.	Pa.	obtp	m	ybm	gjm v	me	Grown by Robert Manning; perhaps valuable. Originated on farm of Miss Anna Bartram, near Philadelphia, Pa. Published in Western Horticultural Review, vol. 4, p. 165.
Basce. R. Syn. Beurre Basce.							

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Baizer. L. Syn. Charles Basiner. Jasmin. F 67. D'69, 73. Syn. of Jargonelle (Fr.) Bastie. R. Syn. President de la Bastie.	Eur.	obo		yg	j	s		m	Described by Hogg. In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C. Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1855, p. 146.
Baichan. R. Syn. Calchasse Baichan.									
Baud de la Cour. D'69, 811. Syn. of Marchal.									
Baudry. St. AUM234. FES0FO'04, 43. Syns. Bon Chretien Fred Baudry, Fred Baudry.									
Bauvier. L. Syn. Bauvier d'Autonn.	Rus.								On trial at Agricultural College, Michigan. Introduced from Russia in 1892.
Bauvier d'Autonna. Gb. Syn. of Bauvier.									
Bavay. L. Syns. De Bavay, Poire de Bavay.	Belg.	obtp	m	yrub	cojm	sp	g-vg	m	Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1853, p. 542. Exhibited by Ellwanger & Barry in 1905.
Baylor. WNYII'05, 140.									
Bayonaise. D'69, 861. Syn. of Green Sweet.									
Beacon. NYC'90. E&B'94. EFABC'00. CanExFR'02, 379.		obtp	ms	y	yg	s	g	me	Cultivated at experimental farm, Agassiz, B. C. Described by Elliott.
Beadnell's Seedling. E'54, 357, '59, 367. Syn. of Beadnell.	Eur.	p	m	ygr	mj		g	me	
Beamish. F.G.Aofo'82, 82.	Ont.						g		Originated near Kingston, Ontario.
Bear. Gb. Syns. Dula Medvedevka, Medvedevka, Medvedevka.	Rus.								Introduced from Russia in 1879. In trial orchard at Agassiz, B. C. Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.
Bearnise. EFABC'00.									
Beauchamps. Gen F'33, 196. N.A.P.C'49, 38. E'54, 354, '56, 360. D'57, 456, '60, 673. T'85, 287. Syns. Belle de Brissac, Bergamotte Beauchamps, Burgamotte Bulo, Burgamotte Cadette, Bergamotte Capraud, Beurre Beauchamps, Beurre Cadette, Beurre de Beauchamps, Beaumont, Highbons d'Iliver, Nouveau Cours Complet d'Agriculture, Oignonet (incorrectly of some), Poire de Cadet.	Belg.	robo	m	yrub	bjmg	s	g	ml	
Beauchamps. F276. Syn. of Bulo.									
Beauchamps. W 696. E'54, 354. T'75, 337, '85, 551, '97, 694. Syn. of Cadet.									
Beaucherc. D'69, 863. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Sum.)									
Beaufort. A 85, 133, '87, 90. JVL'93, '99, '00. BBL.	N. C.								Originated at Beaufort, N. C. Named by J. Van Lindley.
Beaulien. L. Syn. Beurre Beaulien.									
Beaumont. Cult'47, 340. Syns. Abbe de Beaumont, Beaumont, Beurre Beaumont, Beurre Beaumont, Beaumont, Beaumont, Bery de St. Wast, Bezy Wast.	Fr.	tp	m	gyrn	ghm	v	g	m	Originated by Andre Leroy, of Angers, France.
Beau Present. P182. Gen F'37, 227. D'45, 337, '57, 514, '69, 798. E'54, 373, '59, 383. F280. Syn. of Jargonelle (Eng.).		obtp	m	gyr	jm	vs		me	
Beau Present d'Artois. Magoffin'51, 542. B'51, 298. MassH'53, 21. E'54, 354, '59, 365. D'57, 563, '60, 668. F276. IIIII'63, 22. T'75, 337, '85, 551, '97, 694. EFABC'00. Syn. of Artois.									

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Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Belle Croonneuse</i> . MassH'48,97. Syn. of Croonneuse.									
<i>Belle d'Aoud</i> . Fr150. D'45,334,57,564,68,698. E'54,349,59,418. A'54,237. Syn. of Brussels.									
<i>Belle d'Aoud or Aoud</i> . F296. Syn. of Brussels.									
<i>Belle d'Artois</i> . D'60,700. Syn. of Jamblotte.									
<i>Belle de Brabant</i> . F6A000'8,172. E'54,349. EFABC'00. [Perhaps same as Brabant.]									
<i>Belle de Berry</i> . K'41,159. Cult'47,340. Hov1,47. Agr'62,189. D'69,875. Syn. of Veer.									
<i>Belle de Brabant</i> . D'57,456. Syn. of Beauchamps.									
<i>Belle de Brabant</i> . Hov'54,308. F276. Syn. of Bulle.									
<i>Belle de Brabant</i> . Cult'48,88. Syn. of Brussels.									
<i>Belle de Brabant</i> . Fr150. K'52,153,41,180. D'45,334,57,564,68,698. Hort'47,446.									
<i>Belle de Brabant</i> . Agr'54,249,54,237. AJoHVI11,223. H122. F276. T'75,537,85,551,97,694. Syn. of Brussels.									
<i>Belle de Brabant</i> . GenF'37,277. M'38,76. D'45,353,57,454,69,778. MagofH'47,344.									
<i>Belle de Brabant</i> . Syn. of Hampden.									
<i>Belle de Brabant without Kernel</i> . F276. Syn. of Kernel.									
<i>Belle d'Ecilly</i> . Can11'88,261. Syn. of Ecilly.									
<i>Belle d'Esquermes</i> . MagofH'54,135. D'69,700. Syn. of Fontenay.									
<i>Belle d'Ere</i> . Fr30. Syn. of Beauty of Summer.									
<i>Belle d'Ere</i> . D'69,883. Syn. of Windsor.									
<i>Belle de Ferron</i> . F220. Syn. of Ferron.									
<i>Belle de Flandres</i> . M'44,800. D'45,336,57,453,69,700. E'54,324,59,337. Agr'62,184.									
<i>Belle de Flandres</i> . M'44,800. D'45,336,57,453,69,700. E'54,324,59,337. Agr'62,184.									
<i>Belle de Flandres</i> . T'75,537,85,551,97,694. B'83,389. Syn. of Flemish.									
<i>Belle de Flandres</i> . F272. D'69,779. Syn. of Harward.									
<i>Belle de Forest</i> . D'69,713. Syn. of Summer Calabasse.									
<i>Belle d'Izelle</i> . F214. Syn. of Easter Beur.									
<i>Belle d'Izelle</i> . MagofH'60,218. Syn. of Izelles. [Perhaps distinct from Ester Beur.]									
<i>Belle de Jersey</i> . E'54,334,59,346. D'57,537,69,835. F283. AJoHVI1,50. S18.									
<i>Belle de Jersey</i> . Syn. of Pound.									
<i>Belle de Jersey</i> . D'69,668. Syn. of Thours.									
<i>Belle de Jersey</i> . (of the French). K'32,151,41,129. D'45,448. Syn. of Tonneau.									
<i>Belle de Lorient</i> . D'69,668. Syn. of L'Orient.									
<i>Belle de Luxembourg</i> . D'69,778. Syn. of Hampden.									
<i>Belle de Moire</i> . D'69,694. IIIH'69,116. Syn. of Moire.									
<i>Belle de Noel</i> . E'54,349,59,359. Agr'56,336. D'57,469,69,764. T'75,537,85,551,97,694. Syn. of Noel.									
<i>Belle de Prague</i> . D'69,663. Syn. of Thours.									
<i>Belle des Abres</i> . IaH'79,325. AJoH'92,276. EFABC'00. Syn. of Abres.									
<i>Belle des Bots</i> . F280. D'69,760. Syn. of Flemish.									

<i>Bergamote</i> , Pr85. Syn. of Provence. <i>Bergamote Mague</i> , GenF'33.197. Cult'30.66. Syn. of Bequaune. <i>Berckmans</i> , L. Syns. Alexandre Berckmans, Bourre Berckmans.	Belg...	obop	mi	yu	jum	p	vg	m	Originated by Maj. Pierre Joseph Esperen, Malines, Belgium.
<i>Bere Blanche de Lifland</i> , CanH'94.201. Syn. of Lifland. <i>Bergamota</i> , CalSBotH'92.40. Syn. of Lifland. <i>Bergamote</i> (Aut.), F277. Syns. Autumn Bergamot, Autumn Bergamot, English, motté d'Automne, Common Bergamot, English Autumn Bergamot, English Bergamot, French Autumn Bergamot, Heere pear, Ruddy English Bergamot, York Bergamot.	Cal.	rob	s	gybru	cgj	sp	g	me	An old native California variety.
<i>Bergamot Buffo</i> , F276. Syn. of Bufo. <i>Bergamot Cadet</i> , F176. Syn. of Cadet. <i>Bergamot Crassane</i> , Th186. E'54.393. '56.420. Syn. of Crassane. <i>Bergamot d'Hier</i> , P-177. K'32.142. GenF'37.278. E'54.389. F277. CanH'94.291. Syn. of Easter Bergamot.									
<i>Bergamot d'Estier</i> , E'54.389. F277. T'85.552. Syn. of Easter Bergamot. <i>Bergamote a Feuilles Panachees</i> , F276. <i>Bergamote Crassane</i> , K'41.122. F276. Syn. of Crassane. <i>Bergamote Crassane d'Ete</i> , F276. <i>Bergamote d'Angleterre</i> , F276. <i>Bergamote d'Automne</i> , F276. Syn. Grosse Ambrette. <i>Bergamote d'Ertrycher</i> , F276. <i>Bergamote d'Ete</i> , F276. CanExFR'03.421. Syns. Bourre blanc or White, Bourre d'Ete, Bourre Ronde, Milan Ronde, Milan de la Beuvriere, Boutille Boutie.	For.								In Field's undescribed list.
<i>Bergamot d'Ete</i> , D'45.333. E'59.422. Syn. of Hampden. <i>Bergamote d'Ete Panachee</i> , F276. <i>Bergamote d'Heimbouurg</i> , F277. Syn. of Heimbouurg. <i>Bergamote Drouet</i> , F276. Syn. of Drouet. <i>Bergamote Dussart</i> , F276. Syn. of Dussart. <i>Bergamote Esperen</i> , F277. B'83.379. AotH'90.202. Syn. of D'Esperen. <i>Bergamot Fiere</i> , MagoH'54.136. Syn. of Fieve. <i>Bergamot Ganzel's</i> , W'616. Syn. of Ganzel Bergamot. <i>Bergamot Hampden's</i> , W'606. F277. T'85.352. Syn. of Hampden. <i>Bergamot Heltrich</i> , EFABC'00. W'NYH'05.140.	For.	obtp	m	ybr	jbm	s	g	me	In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C. In Field's undescribed list.
<i>Bergamot Kraenui</i> , Gb. Syn. of Red Bergamot. <i>Bergamot Kunk</i> , Gb. Syn. of Kunk. <i>Bergamot La Gaudais</i> , Gb. EFABC'00. Syn. of Gaudais. <i>Bergamot Lagette</i> , F277. Syn. of Lagette. <i>Bergamot Liband</i> , EFABC'00.									Exhibited by Ellwanger & Barry at meeting of Western New York Horticultural Society, 1905, p. 140.
<i>Bergamot Libbittent Vertle</i> , MagoH'52.474. Syn. of Libbittent. <i>Bergamot</i> (Lott). Syn. Lott's Bergamot.									In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C. Listed by Kenrick as a baking variety.
<i>Bergamot Louvala</i> , MagoH'55.185. <i>Bergamot oxensis</i> , Gb. Syn. of Autumn Bergamot. <i>Bergamot pentecote</i> , P-53. Syn. of Easter Beurre. <i>Bergamot Philadelph</i> , EFABC'00. Syn. of Philadelph. <i>Bergamot</i> (Platt), K'41.130. Syn. of Platt's Bergamot. <i>Bergamot plaskui</i> , Gb. Syn. of Fiat Bergamot.		r	m	yu			g	m	Not described.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Bergamot rannaya</i> . Gb. Syn. of Early Bergamot.									
<i>Bergamot rannui</i> . Gb. Syn. of Early Bergamot.									
<i>Bergamot Rajec</i> . Kr74. D'69,863. Syn. of Swiss Bergamot									
<i>Bergamot Sapieganka</i> . Gb. Syn. of Sapieganka.									
<i>Bergamot Seckel</i> . D'69,671	Eng.	r	ms	rbu	j	sp			Raised by William Pittmaston, of England.
<i>Bergamot Suisse</i> . Gen F'93,196. F277. Syn. of Suisse.									
<i>Bergamot Suisse</i> . Gb. T'30,366. E'54,400. '56,424. Syn. of Swiss Bergamot.									
<i>Bergamot Sylvane</i> . F277. T'85,529. Syn. of Summer Bergamot.									
<i>Bergamot Sylvange</i> . F277. D'69,866. Syn. of Sylvange.									
<i>Bergamot Sylvange</i> . E'54,400. Syn. of Sylvange.									
<i>Bergamot Veduti</i> . Gb. Syn. of Veduti.									
<i>Bergamot Zeleni</i> . Gb. Syn. of Green Bergamot.									
<i>Bergamote</i> . E'59,403. Syn. of Portugal.									
<i>Bergamote Beauchamp</i> . Syn. of Beauchamps.									
<i>Bergamote Bousiere</i> . E'54,336. '59,418. D'69,699. Syn. of Bousiere.									
<i>Bergamote Bufo</i> . D'57,456. E'59,366. Syn. of Beauchamps.									
<i>Bergamote Bufo</i> . D'69,670. Syn. of Bufo.									
<i>Bergamote Cadet</i> . W'696. D'69,670. B'228,234. Syn. of Cadet.									
<i>Bergamote Cadette</i> . K'41,121,126. D'45,367, '57,456. B'51,303. E'54,354, '59,366. T'75,269. '85,287, '97,466. Syn. of Beauchamps.									
<i>Bergamote Cadette</i> . F276. MoH'03,85. Syn. of Bufo.									
<i>Bergamote Cheminette</i> . F281. D'69,700. Syn. of Jaunitte.									
<i>Bergamote Capraud</i> . D'57,456. Syn. of Beauchamps.									
<i>Bergamote Crapaud</i> . K'41,137. MagotII'48,253. II'154. E'59,366. D'69,670. Syn. of Bufo.									
<i>Bergamote Crassane</i> . Gen F'33,196. D'45,375, '57,571, '69,729. Syn. of Crassane.									
<i>Bergamote Crassane d'Automne</i> . D'69,729. Syn. of Crassane.									
<i>Bergamote Crassane de Bruneau</i> . D'69,676. Syn. of Bruneau.									
<i>Bergamote Crassane d'Hiver</i> . D'69,676. Syn. of Bruneau.									
<i>Bergamote Crassane</i> . K'41,122. Syn. of Crassane.									
<i>Bergamote Crassane</i> . K'41,122. Syn. of Crassane.									
<i>Bergamote d'Alencon</i> . D'45,430, '57,564, '69,784. E'54,389, '59,417. F277. Syn. of Hollande.									
<i>Bergamote d'Angleterre</i> . D'45,333, '57,565, '69,778. E'54,396, '59,422. F277. Syn. of Hampden.									
<i>Bergamote d'Angleterre</i> . Pr'88. Syn. of Summer Bergamot.									
<i>Bergamote d'Automne</i> . M'38,366, '44,73. K'41,121. A'54,237. CanH'94,291. Syn. Autumn Bergamot.									
<i>Bergamote d'Automne</i> . Pr70. Syn. of Bergamot (Aut.)									
<i>Bergamote d'Automne</i> . MHSC'82,57. FGAOfO'93,221. CanH'94,291. Syn. of Red Bergamot.									
<i>Bergamote d'Averanches</i> . HovI'39. AGR'62,185. D'69,805. Syn. of Loulee									

Manning says, "distinct from Autumn Bergamot."

Bergamotte de Bruzelles.	D'69,778.	Syn. of Hampden.
Bergamotte de Buzet.	F277. Gen F 37,278.	D'46,420; '57,564, '69,751. E'54,389, '59,417.
F277.	Syn. of Easter Bergamot.	
Bergamotte de Cadette.	K'32,133.	Syn. of Cadet.
Bergamotte de Carême.	D'69,751.	Syn. of Easter Bergamot.
Bergamotte d'Esperen.	MagoH'48,209, '54,481.	AJofBHX.377. EFAABC'00. Syn.
Bergamotte Esperen.	D'57,455, '69,670.	H135. F277. Agr'58,405. T'75,537, '85,552,
'97,695.	Syn. of D'Esperen.	
Bergamotte d'Espérin.	E'54,354, '59,366.	Syn. of D'Espérin.
Bergamotte d'Ete.	E'54,386.	D'57,565. F277. T'75,538, '85,552, '97,695. Syn. of
Hampden.		
Bergamotte d'Eie.	Pf88. Gen F 37,277.	K'41,120. D'69,862. EFAABC'00. Syn. of Sum-
mer Bergamot.		
Bergamotte d'Eie Grosse.	D'69,778.	Syn. of Hampden.
Bergamotte d'Eie ou Milan Blanc.	K'41,120.	D'69,863. Syn. of Franc Real (Sum.)
Bergamotte de Flandre.	F201,280.	D'69,760. Syn. of Flemish
Bergamotte de Fougere.	D'45,430, '57,564, '69,784.	E'54,389, '59,417. F277. Syn. of
Hollande.		
Bergamotte de Hampden.	Pf88.	Syn. of Summer Bergamot.
Bergamotte d'Hiver.	D'45,429, '57,564.	E'56,417. CanH'94,291. Syn. of Easter Ber-
gamot.		
Bergamotte d'Holland.	D'69,784.	Syn. of Hollande
Bergamotte d'Hollande.	K'32,146, '41,126.	D'45,430, '57,564, '69,784. E'54,389, '59,417.
F277.	T'75,534, '85,552, '97,695.	Syn. of Hollande.
Bergamotte d'Holland d'Alecon.	Gen F 37,278.	Syn. of Holland
Bergamotte de Kusk.	CanH'94,291.	
Bergamotte de la Grilliere.	D'69,751.	Syn. of Easter Bergamot.
Bergamotte de la Penicote.	K'32,193, '41,160.	Gen F 37,278. D'45,425, '57,428, '69,751.
E'54,317, '99,331.	T'75,537, '85,552, '97,695.	Syn. of Easter Beurre.
Bergamotte de Malines.	F277.	
Bergamotte de Millepede.	MagoH'57,301.	F277. E'56,368. A'69,38. AHorta
'68,71.	T'75,537, '85,552, '97,695.	Syn. of Millipeds
Bergamotte de Mitrades.	K'35,457, '69,670.	X'53,382. Syn. of Multiplieds.
Bergamotte du Pagan.	Hort'57,189.	Corn X'159.
Bergamotte de Paques.	K'32,142, '41,124.	D'45,429, '57,564, '69,751. E'54,389, '59,417.
MagoH'54,459, F277.	Syn. of Easter Bergamot.	
Bergamotte de Paques.	Pf77.	Gen F 37,278.
Bergamotte de Parthenay.	K'41,113.	Syn. of Easter Bergamot.
Bergamotte de Paysan.	D'69,778.	Syn. of Parthenay.
Bergamotte de Soulers.	Pf78.	
'552, '97,695.	Syn. of Soulers.	
Bergamotte des Paysons.	K'32,161.	
Bergamotte de Toulouse.	D'45,429, '57,464, '69,751.	E'54,389, '59,417. F277. Syn. of
Easter Bergamot.		
Bergamotte de Voronege.	CanH'94,291.	Syn. of Voronoge.
Bergamotte Dorce.	D'69,841.	Syn. of Red Bergamot.
Bergamotte Dussart.	MagoH'52,298.	WHRII'559. Syn. of Drouet.
Bergamotte Esperen.	MagoH'57,158.	Syn. of Bergamotte d'Esperen.
Bergamotte Fienc.	D'57,439, '69,762.	Pf64,276. Agr'62,179. Syn. of Lucrative.
Bergamotte Fortune.	MagoH'50,295.	A'54,237. D'57,573, '69,766. F280. Syn. of
Fortunes.		

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—(continued).

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Besidery Sandry</i> . Tri24. K'32.144. D'66.753. Syn. of Echasserie.									
<i>Best de St. Waast</i> . D'60.702. EFAHC'00. Syn. of Vaet.									
<i>Best de Vindre</i> . F278. Syn. of Vindre.									
<i>Best du Catasoy or Quasoy</i> . F278. Syn. of Calsoy.									
<i>Best Esperen</i> . D'60.701. B'83.379. Syn. of Best Esperen.									
<i>Best Fondante</i> . F280. D'66.777. Syn. of Hamon.									
<i>Best Hamon</i> . D'66.777. Syn. of Hamon.									
<i>Best Incomparable</i> . F278. D'66.702. Syn. of Sanspareil.									
<i>Best Libouton</i> . F278. Syn. of Libouton.									
<i>Best Quasoy d'Ete</i> . Magoffi'57.290. D'69.700. T'85.555. Syn. of Calsoy d'Ete.									
<i>Best Rosman</i> . F278. Syn. of Rosman.									
<i>Best Va</i> . D'66.702. Syn. of Vaet.									
<i>Best Vah</i> . D'66.702. Syn. of Vaet.									
<i>Best Wact</i> . D'66.702. Syn. of Vaet.									
<i>Bessa</i> . L. Syn. Belle Bessa.									
<i>Bessemlanka</i> . Gh. MHSC'92.53. '83.117. IaH'82.83. '84.312. '85.321. A'83.73. '87.94. IndH'85.27. '88.44. FGAO'83.219. OH'87.165. HAJ'88.62. N251. IUH'90.126. '92. 172. '94.137. '96.45. Bul6.8. AHM234. Syns. Bessemlanka, No508, Samenlose, Seedless.	Rus...	robo	m	gyu y	yg	s	g	l me	From New Duhamel. Introduced from Russia in 1879.
<i>Bessemlanka Ordinaire</i> . CanH'94.291.									Possibly the same as Bessemlanka.
<i>Bessemlanka</i> . BBCo. Syn. of Bessemlanka.									On trial at Illinois Experiment Station No. 1.
<i>Best</i> . R. Syn. Best's Favorite.									Not described. Published in the Horticulturist, 1866, p. 334.
<i>Best's Favorite</i> . IUH'96.178.186. '04.223. BB1. Syn. of Best.									A culinary and perry pear. In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Best Winter</i> . A'73.111.	Pa?								
<i>Bethlehem</i> . R. Syn. Star of Bethlehem.									
<i>Betzleblirn</i> . MHSC'85.26.									
<i>Beucke</i> . R. Syn. Beurre Beucke.									
<i>Beurre</i> . GenF'33.196. K'41.120. D'45.357. '57.471. '08.710. E'54.350. '96.360. Syn. of Brown.		r	m	y			p	ml	
<i>Beurre Adam</i> . Magoffi'47.467. A'54.237. E'54.391. '96.418. Syn. of Thumb.									
<i>Beurre Adlem</i> . Muchi'76.143. Syn. of Adlem.									
<i>Beurre a la Reine</i> . D'60.818. Syn. of Musical Robert.									
<i>Beurre a la maine</i> . D'57.469. '98.661. F277. T'75.538. '85.562. EFABC'00. CanExFR 03.421. Syn. of Angletorne.									
<i>Beurre Amanille</i> . Bul5. Syn. of Amanille.									
<i>Beurre Ananas</i> . A'75.68. F'75.538. '83.532. Dapl55. Syn. of Ananas.									
<i>Beurre Ananas</i> . Cult'47.340. D'57.507. '98.782. F260. E'66.360. Syn. of Henry IV.									
<i>Beurre Andanson</i> . Hort 51,114. A'54.237. H132. Syn. of Audusson.									

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Beurre Bosc</i> . K' 32,151, 41,135. GenF 73,196. M' 38,80,44,50, 47,67. Cult' 39,66. D' 45,558, 57,426, 69,674. Colel61. AGR 50,95, 53,279, 54,220. B' 51,302, 83,366. Hoyl' 65. E' 54,315, 59,329. W' 66. T' 75,259, 85,277. AJOHVI, 145. Canil' 78,69. Syn. of Bosc.									
<i>Beurre Bouquet</i> . K' 41,146. D' 45,355, 57,567, 69,707. E' 54,391, 59,419. F278. Syn. of Bouquet.									
<i>Beurre Boussock</i> . D' 69,72. B' 83,361. Syn. of Boussock.									
<i>Beurre Bretonneau</i> . E' 54,351, 59,363. T' 75,538, 85,553. Syn. of Bretonneau.									
<i>Beurre Bretonneau</i> . MagofH 48,111,209, 52,299, 54,457. W' H' 1,46,11,259. B' 51,313. E' 54,353, 59,363. D' 57,468, 69,676. Hort' 57,116. H129. F278. T' 85,553. Syn. of Bretonneau.									
<i>Beurre Bronze</i> . D' 45,428. E' 54,390.									
<i>Beurre Brouzee</i> . D' 45,388, 428, 57,498, 69,760. E' 59,418. Syn. of Naples.									
<i>Beurre Brougham</i> . F278. Syn. of Brougham.									
<i>Beurre Broin</i> . GenF 73,196. B' 51,302, 83,378. E' 54,350, 59,360. H127. F277. T' 75,271, 85,289. Syn. of Brown.									
<i>Beurre Brunau</i> . Cult' 47,340. F278. D' 69,676. Syn. of Brunau.									
<i>Beurre Burchard</i> . D' 69,680. Syn. of Aremberg.									
<i>Beurre Burnicq</i> . MagofH 55,188. D' 57,469, 69,676. F228. T' 75,538, 85,553. Syn. of Burnicq.									
<i>Beurre Butler</i> . F228. Syn. of Brown.									
<i>Beurre Bymont</i> . E' 59,363. Syn. of Bymont.									
<i>Beurre Cadet</i> . E' 59,360. Syn. of Bufo.									
<i>Beurre Cadelle</i> . N' A' P' C' 40,38. Syn. of Beauchamps.									
<i>Beurre Camphre</i> . MassH 71,40. Syn. of Camphre.									
<i>Beurre Canton Horner</i> . CanEx F' 96,135. Syn. of Horner.									
<i>Beurre Caplaumont</i> . MagofH 40,45. B' 51,303. E' 54,357, 59,369. F278. Syn. of Caplaumont.									
<i>Beurre Catherine</i> . MagofH 43,130. Syn. of Catherine.									
<i>Beurre Chapman</i> . D' 69,629. Syn. of Passee Colmar.									
<i>Beurre Chapal</i> . Cult' 47,340. E' 54,358, 59,371. D' 69,717. Syn. of Chapal.									
<i>Beurre Charneuse</i> . D' 57,494, 69,747. F283. T' 75,538, 85,553. Syn. of Brabant.									
<i>Beurre Charron</i> . F' 54,351, 59,360. Hort' 54,306. W' H' 111,453. H130. F278. D' 69,676. Syn. of Charron.									
<i>Beurre Chateaux</i> . D' 69,676. Syn. of Chateaux.									
<i>Beurre Chandy</i> . AndN 95. E' F' A' B' C' 00. Syn. of Chandy.									
<i>Beurre Citron (1)</i> . D' 57,469, 69,676. F277. T' 75,538, 85,553, 97,698. Syn. Citron.	Belg.	obo	ms	yr	mf	sp	g-vg	vi	Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.
<i>Beurre Citron (2)</i> . D' 69,676.		obtp	ms	yr	g	p	l		Not of value.
<i>Beurre Clairgeau</i> . B' 51,313, 83,366. Hoyl' 73. E' 54,354, 59,106. MagofH 55,87. NW F' 35,41. AGR 56,329. D' 57,463, 69,678. A' 12,64. (GenX) 128. Cult' 58,51. 256. A' Hort' 48,78. T' 75,289, 85,304. W' H' 127,11,337,111,259. Syn. of Clairgeau.									
<i>Beurre Clairgeau</i> . MagofH 53,40. Syn. of Clairgeau.									

	r	m	gy	g	i
Beurre d'Ecôle. F297. Syn. of Ecôle.					
Beurre d'Euberg. D'57,469, '69,468. E'49,342. T'75,538, '85,553. Syn. of Dumas.					
Beurre d'Engien. AHortA'71,165. OH'77,148. Syn. of Beurre Colmar.					
Beurre d'Enghien. C'54,177. F278. D'69,678. Syn. of Beurre Colmar.					
Beurre d'Esdras. MagoffH'51,473. MasahH'51,175. Syn. of Estraps.					
Beurre d'Ete. F276. Syn. of Bergamotte d'Ete.					
Beurre d'Ete. D'69,883. Syn. of France Real (Saum).					
Beurre d'Etuis. F278. E'59,378. D'69,682. Syn. of Defais.					
Beurre d'Etuis. D'69,682. Syn. of Defais.					
Beurre de Ferrier. MagoffH'60,133. D'69,682. Syn. of Fevrier.					
Beurre de Flandre. K'41,169. Syn. of Flandre.					
Beurre de Flandre. D'43,427, '57,473, '69,696. E'54,330, '59,361. F277. Syn. of Rance.					
Beurre de Fontenay. HovH'1,81. D'57,423, '69,690. F228,277. T'75,539, '85,553. Syn. of Gray Winter.					
Beurre de Fromentel. D'69,760. Syn. of Ghelin.					
Beurre d'Inghern. D'69,760. Syn. of Ghelin.					
Beurre de Gelle. GenF'37,278. D'69,686. Syn. of Diel.					
Beurre de Ghelin. D'69,682. EFABC'00. CanExFR'03,421. Syn. of Ghelin.					
Beurre de Gommery. F278. Syn. of Gommery.					
Beurre de Hamptenne. F278. D'69,791. Syn. of Witte.					
Beurre d'Hardenpont. P'91. GenF'33,197. D'45,437, '57,593, '69,773. HovI,5. E'54,325, '59,339. F216. Agr'62,185. T'75,539, '85,553. Syn. of Glout Moreau.					
Beurre d'Hardenpont d'Autonne. D'69,683. Syn. of Glout Moreau.					
Beurre d'Hardenpont (erroneously). K'32,188. Syn. of Aremberg.					
Beurre d'Hardenpont de Cambon. D'69,773. Syn. of Glout Moreau.					
Beurre d'Hardenpont Panache. EFABC'00.					
Beurre d'Herl. H135.					
Beurre d'Hiver. K'32,143. GenF'33,196, '37,278. D'45,433, '57,569, '69,718. E'54,339, '59,372. F279. T'75,539, '85,553. Syn. of Chaumontel.					
Beurre d'Hiver. D'69,751. Syn. of Easter Bergamot.					
Beurre d'Hiver. D'69,690. Syn. of Gray Winter.					
Beurre d'Hiver. D'69,696. Syn. of Rance.					
Beurre d'Hiver Ambode. A'62,117. Syn. of Beurre Gamber.					
Beurre d'Hiver de Brabant. D'32,183, 41,169. GenF'33,196, '37,278. D'45,425, '57,428, '69,751. E'54,317, '59,331. F277. Syn. of Easter Beurre.					
Beurre d'Hiver Nouvelle. D'45,437. HovI,5. E'54,325, '59,339. Agr'62,185. Syn. of Glout Moreau.					
Beurre d'Hiver. P'94. Syn. of Chaumontel.					
Beurre d'Hiver. P'94. Syn. of Chaumontel.					
Beurre d'Hiver Nouvelle capce. P'83. Syn. of Easter Beurre.					
Beurre d'Jaambert le Bon. D'69,710. Syn. of Brown.					
Beurre de Jalais. D'69,705. Syn. of Jalais.					
Beurre de Jolage. MagoffH'57,258. AOffHIV,182. D'69,683. AHortA'69,79. EFABC'00. Syn. of Beurre Jolage.					
Beurre de Kachengheim. MagoffH'40,380. Syn. of Kachengheim.					
Beurre de Kent. D'69,778. Syn. of Glout Moreau.					
Beurre de Kent. K'41,170. MagoffH'42,250. Syn. of Kent.					
Beurre de Konig. D'57,470, '69,684. E'59,364. T'75,539, '85,553. Syn. of Konig.					
Beurre de Konink. E'59,364. Syn. of Konig.					
Beurre de la Chapelle. D'69,705. Syn. of Chapelle.					
Beurre de la Cour. AndN'95. EFABC'00. Syn. of Cour.					

In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Mr. Lyon considered this name an error.

[illegible]

May possibly be Passe Colmar.

<i>Beurre Extra.</i>	D'69,784. Syn. of Hollandse.	
<i>Beurre Figue.</i>	H123. Syn. of Figue.	
<i>Beurre Fion.</i>	D'69,688. Syn. of Fion.	
<i>Beurre Fortunée.</i>	K'41,157. D'45,436. E'54,335, '59,421. Syn. of Fortune.	
<i>Beurre Fouchère.</i>	D'57,460, '69,688. F'27. E'59,301. T'75,539, '85,554. EFABC'00.	
Syn. of Fougère.		
<i>Beurre Froidard.</i>	D'69,700. Syn. of Flemish.	
<i>Beurre Fromental.</i>	AJoH'67,231. AHort'98,79. D'69,692. Syn. of Ghelin.	
<i>Beurre Gambler.</i>	A'62,117. EFABC'00. Syn. Beurre d'Ilver Amboise	
<i>Beurre Genard.</i>	D'69,772. Syn. of Gillogil.	
<i>Beurre Gendron.</i>	D'69,688. Syn. of Gendron.	
<i>Beurre Gens.</i>	MagoffH'51,472. D'57,460, '69,688. F'278. E'59,302. T'75,539, '85,554.	
Syn. of Gens.		
<i>Beurre Giffard.</i>	MagoffH'46,111. B'51,313, '83,363. Hort'54,61. Agr'54,243,249.	
5'85,244. D'57,461, '69,689. F'235. E'59,325. A'62,66. IIIH'60,158, '84,67. T'75,250.		
Syn. of Giffard.		
<i>Beurre Giffart.</i>	B'51,313. MagoffH'51,399, '52,151,433. Syn. of Giffard.	
<i>Beurre Gifford.</i>	E'54,351, '59,325. H131. Gen'48,171,30. F'152. Wn1,324,11,334.	
Syn. of Giffard.		
<i>Beurre Gilles.</i>	EFABC'00. Syn. of Gilles.	
<i>Beurre Golden of Bilboa.</i>	A'62,66. B'83,378. Syn. of Bilboa.	
<i>Beurre Goubalt.</i>	MagoffH'50,340. Hort'53,506, '55,54. A'62,66. MoH'63,45. D'69,690.	
T'85,301. Syn. of Goubalt.		
<i>Beurre Goubault.</i>	B'51,313. Agr'54,251, '56,345. D'57,468. F'278. H130. T'75,283.	
'85,301. EFABC'00. Syn. of Goubalt.		
<i>Beurre Gris.</i>	C188. P+49. K'32,153,41,120. Gen'F'33,194. D'45,357, '57,471, '69,710.	
<i>Beurre Gris d'Automne.</i>	F'277. T'75,539, '85,554. Syn. of Brown.	
<i>Beurre Gris de Bilboa.</i>	D'69,710. Syn. of Bilboa.	
<i>Beurre Gris d'Élé.</i>	D'69,773. Syn. of Bilboa.	
<i>Beurre Gris d'Ilver.</i>	Hov11,81. D'57,423, '69,690. F'258. E'59,364. AHort'68,79.	
T'75,291, '85,339. EFABC'00. Syn. of Gray Winter.		
<i>Beurre Gris d'Ilver de Lucon.</i>	D'57,423. F'278. Syn. of Gray Winter.	
<i>Beurre Gris d'Ilver Nouveau.</i>	MagoffH'48,10. E'54,317. H154. MchH'74,30.	
<i>Beurre Gris d'Ilver de Wint.</i>	B'83,378. D'57,423, '11,537. Syn. of Master Butter.	
<i>Beurre Gris d'Ilver de Wint.</i>	K'41,160, '57,423, '69,690. N'APC'49,38.	
W'67,576, '85,339. H131. H134. Agr'56,367. E'59,364. T'85,309.		
Chil'65,76. Syn. of Gray Winter.		
<i>Beurre Gris de Lucon.</i>	F'258,277. D'69,690. T'75,539, '85,554. Syn. of Gray Winter.	
<i>Beurre Gris de Portugal.</i>	D'69,773. Syn. of Bilboa.	
<i>Beurre Gris Supérieur.</i>	Hov11,81. D'57,423, '69,690. F'258,277. E'59,364. Syn. of Gray Winter.	
<i>Beurre Haflner.</i>	Hort'61,220. D'69,691. Syn. of Haflner.	
<i>Beurre Haflner (Lageli).</i>	MagoffH'54,234. Syn. of Haflner.	
<i>Beurre Hugueton.</i>	MagoffH'42,57. D'45,333, '57,520, '69,802. E'54,300, '59,396. Agr'54,345. F'281. Hort'58,121. A'62,70. T'75,539, '85,554. Syn. of Limon.	
<i>Beurre Hamacher.</i>	D'57,470, '69,691. E'59,362. T'75,539, '85,554. Syn. of Hamacher.	
<i>Beurre Hammecher.</i>	F'278. Syn. of Hammecher.	
<i>Beurre Hammecher.</i>	MagoffH'52,290, WHR11,559. Syn. of Hammecher.	
<i>Beurre Hard-en-pont.</i>	K'41,161. Syn. of Glout Morceau.	
<i>Beurre Hardi.</i>	Agr'58,396. Syn. of Hardy.	

May possibly be Passe Colmar.

<i>Beurre Extra.</i>	D'69,784. Syn. of Hollande.				
<i>Beurre Fige.</i>	H123. Syn. of Figue.				
<i>Beurre Gaillet.</i>	D'69,688. Syn. of Gaillet.				
<i>Beurre Fortunée.</i>	K'41,157. D'45,430. E'54,395,59,421. Syn. of Fortunes.				
<i>Beurre Fougère.</i>	D'57,466, '69,688. F'27. E'59,361. T'75,539,85,554. EFABC'00.				
Syn. of Fougère.					
<i>Beurre Froidard.</i>	D'69,700. Syn. of Flemish.				
<i>Beurre Fromental.</i>	AloftH'67,231. A'Horta'88,79. D'69,682. Syn. of Ghelin.				
<i>Beurre Gambler.</i>	E'92,117. EFABC'00. Syn. Beurre d'Hiver Amboise.				
<i>Beurre Gerardois.</i>	D'69,772. Syn. of Giloyell.				
<i>Beurre Gondron.</i>	D'69,688. Syn. of Gondron.				
<i>Beurre Gras.</i>	Magoth'51,472. D'57,469, '69,689. F'278. E'59,362. T'75,539,85,554.				
Syn. of Gras.					
<i>Beurre Giffard.</i>	Magoth'48,111. B'51,313,88,303. Hort'54,61. Agr'54,243,249.				
<i>Beurre Gifford.</i>	D'57,461, '69,689. F'235. E'59,325. A'62,66. IIIH'69,158,84,67. T'75,250.				
<i>Beurre Gifford.</i>	B'51,331. Magoth'51,369, '52,151,433. Syn. of Giffard.				
<i>Beurre Gifford.</i>	E'54,331, '59,325. H131. C'GenXVII,30. F152. Wn1,324,11,334.				
Syn. of Giffard.					
<i>Beurre Gilles.</i>	EFABC'00. Syn. of Gilles.				
<i>Beurre Golden of Bilbao.</i>	A'62,66. B'83,378. Syn. of Bilbao.				
<i>Beurre Golden of Magoth.</i>	H'30,340. B'83,378. Syn. of Bilbao.				
<i>Beurre Goullet.</i>	Magoth'50,340. B'83,378. Syn. of Bilbao.				
<i>Beurre Goullet.</i>	T'85,301. Syn. of Goullet.				
<i>Beurre Goubault.</i>	B'51,313. Agr'54,251, '56,345. D'57,468. F'278. H130. T'75,283.				
<i>Beurre Grés.</i>	EFABC'00. Syn. of Goubault.				
<i>Beurre Grés.</i>	C188. Pr-49. K'32,135,41,120. GenF'33,194. D'45,357,57,471, '69,710.				
<i>Beurre Gris d'Automne.</i>	F'277. T'75,539,85,554. Syn. of Brown.				
<i>Beurre Gris de Bilbao.</i>	D'69,710. Syn. of Bilbao.				
<i>Beurre Gris d'Ete.</i>	D'69,896. FGALO'92,67. Syn. of Yat.				
<i>Beurre Gris d'Hiver.</i>	Hov11,81. D'57,423, '69,690. F'228. E'59,364. A'Horta'68,79.				
<i>Beurre Gris d'Hiver de Lacom.</i>	T'75,291,85,349. EFABC'00. Syn. of Gray Winter.				
<i>Beurre Gris d'Hiver de Noreau.</i>	D'57,423. F'278. Syn. of Gray Winter.				
<i>Beurre Gris d'Hiver de Noreau.</i>	Magth'48,10. E'54,317. H154. MichH'74,30.				
<i>Beurre Gris d'Hiver de Noreau.</i>	W'527,11,1367. Syn. of Gray Winter.				
<i>Beurre Gris d'Hiver de Noreau.</i>	K'41,157. D'45,429,57,423, '69,690. N'APC'49,38.				
<i>Beurre Gris d'Hiver de Noreau.</i>	D'57,423. F'278. H134. Agr'50,367. E'59,364. T'85,369.				
<i>Beurre Gris d'Hiver de Noreau.</i>	Calle'65,76. Syn. of Gray Winter.				
<i>Beurre Gris de Lacom.</i>	F'228,277. D'69,690. T'75,539,85,554. Syn. of Gray Winter.				
<i>Beurre Gris de Portugal.</i>	D'69,773. Syn. of Bilbao.				
<i>Beurre Gris Supérieur.</i>	Hov11,81. D'57,423, '69,690. F'228,277. E'59,364. Syn. of Gray Winter.				
<i>Beurre Hoffner.</i>	Hov'61,220. D'69,691. Syn. of Hadfuer.				
<i>Beurre Hoffner (Liegl).</i>	Magoth'54,234. Syn. of Hadfuer.				
<i>Beurre Hugonnet.</i>	Magoth'42,57. D'45,333,57,420, '69,802. E'54,390,59,396. Agr'				
<i>Beurre Hugonnet.</i>	'50,345. F'281. Hort'58,121. A'62,70. T'75,539,85,554. Syn. of Limon.				
<i>Beurre Hamacher.</i>	D'57,470, '69,691. E'59,362. T'75,539,85,554. Syn. of Hamacher.				
<i>Beurre Hamacher.</i>	F'278. Syn. of Hamacher.				
<i>Beurre Hammer.</i>	Magoth'52,299,WHRII,559. Syn. of Hamacher.				
<i>Beurre Hardienpont.</i>	K'41,161. Syn. of Glout Moreau.				
<i>Beurre Hardy.</i>	Agr'38,396. Syn. of Hardy.				

[illegible]

Perhaps distinct from Sautin.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Beurre Sprin.</i> D'57,498. Syn. of Espérance.									
<i>Beurre Sprin.</i> Mass.H'30,150. E'54,354. H'128. D'69,456. Syn. of Mon Dieu.									
<i>Beurre Stappards.</i> M'61,115,120. Syn. of Stappards.									
<i>Beurre Stappards.</i> AGR'50,290. E'59,296. Syn. of Hardy.									
<i>Beurre Stappards.</i> Hov'11,43. AGR'54,245. D'57,458. Syn. of Sterkmans.									
<i>Beurre Sterkmans.</i> F'28. Syn. of Hardy.									
<i>Beurre Sterkmans.</i> MagofH'41,472,52,486. Hov'1,43. Hort'53,20. E'54,354. F'277.									
<i>Beurre Sterkmans.</i> T'75,290, '85,278. Syn. of Sterkmans.									
<i>Beurre Stappert.</i> Hort'63,161. Syn. of Stappert.									
<i>Beurre Suddall.</i> EFABC'00. Syn. of Suddall.									
<i>Beurre Suis d'Hiver.</i> A'58,184. Syn. of Suis d'Hiver.									
<i>Beurre Suisse.</i> E'54,350, '59,361. H'133. Syn. of Suisse.									
<i>Beurre Superfin.</i> MagofH'54,150. WHR'IV,449. AGR'54,245, '56,330. D'57,465.									
<i>Beurre Superfin.</i> Hort'55,88. H'127. F'290. A'62,66. AHort'48,79. T'75,271, '85,289.									
<i>Beurre Superfin.</i> Wn'1,333,11,342. Syn. of Superfin.									
<i>Beurre Superfine.</i> MagofH'50,490. B'51,314. E'54,353, '59,363. AGR'63,122. Hort'73,168. Syn. of Superfin.									
<i>Beurre Sutin.</i> MagofH'40,76. Syn. of Beurre Sutin.									
<i>Beurre Tacon.</i> K'41,170. MagofH'42,250. Syn. of Tacon.									
<i>Beurre Tanne.</i> MagofH'42,431. Syn. of Tanne.									
<i>Beurre Thoinin.</i> MagofH'38,394. Cult'47,340, '58,322. Mass.H'48,98. Syn. of Winter Nells.									
<i>Beurre Thoury.</i> H'132. Syn. of Thoury.									
<i>Beurre Tuerlinckx.</i> MagofH'52,299. WHR'II,559. D'57,453, '69,868. Syn. of Tuerlinckx.									
<i>Beurre Ulmer.</i> EFABC'00. Syn. of Ulmer.									
<i>Beurre Vaet.</i> H'135. Syn. of Vaet.									
<i>Beurre Van de Putte.</i> F'278. Syn. of Van de Putte.									
<i>Beurre Van Driessche.</i> GarM'72,22. D'69,699. EFABC'00. Syn. of Driessche.									
<i>Beurre Van Marum.</i> MagofH'37,51. M'38,76, '44,65. D'46,365, '69,873. Cole'163.									
<i>Beurre Van Marum.</i> AGR'54,245. WHR'IV,162. H'134. T'75,540, '85,555. Syn. of Van Marum.									
<i>Beurre Van Mons.</i> GenF'33,198. Cult'39,66. K'41,138. D'45,364, '69,864. MagofH'52,493. Hort'54,100, '66,42. E'54,350. A'54,237. Syn. of Mello.									
<i>Beurre Van Mons.</i> E'59,332. Syn. of Surpasse Virgallen.									
<i>Beurre Vert.</i> Pr'49. K'32,133. GenF'33,196. D'45,357, '57,471, '69,710. E'54,350, '59,360. F'277. Syn. of Brown.									
<i>Beurre Vert.</i> D'69,686. Syn. of Del.									
<i>Beurre Verte de Livone.</i> FGABO'92,97. Syn. of Verte de Livone.									
<i>Beurre Vidal.</i> EFABC'00. Syn. of Vidal.									
<i>Beurre Von Kralich.</i> EFABC'00. Syn. of Kralich.									
<i>Beurre W alteren.</i> MagofH'52,299. WHR'II,559. Hort'54,419. F'278. Syn. of W alteren.									

	Eng	p	m	g	bm	l	Raised by Thomas Rivers, of Eng-land.
<i>Beurre Whizumb</i> . MassH'45,88. '47,69. Syn. of Witzumb.							
<i>Beurre Winter</i> . MagoffH'52,299. WHR'L'540. D'57,467. F277. E'59,362.							
<i>Beurre Witzumb</i> . MassH'44,60. Syn. of Witzumb.							
<i>Beurre Witzumb</i> . K'32,190, 41,158. MassH'48,98. Hort'49,456. Syn. of Witzumb.							
<i>Beurre Woronson</i> . A'90,158. T'75,540,85,555. Syn. of Woronson.							
<i>Beurre Woronson</i> . Garm'71,214. A'71,55. Syn. of Woronson.							
<i>Beurre Woronson</i> . MagoffH'41,534. Allort'70,68. Syn. of Woronson.							
<i>Beurre Woronson</i> . K'72,132. Syn. of Summer Bergamot.							
<i>Beurre Woronson</i> . R. Syn. Beverly Hasle.							
<i>Beverly</i> . R. Syn. Beverly Hasle.							
<i>Beverly Hasle</i> . MagoffH'39,37. Syn. of Beverly.							
<i>Beymont</i> . D'57,474, '60,690. F277. T'5,271,85,289, '97,467. Syns. Beurre Beymont, Beurre Bleumont, Beumont.							
<i>Beymont</i> . Hort'50,294. Syn. of Beumont.							
<i>Bezi Blanc</i> . ColeL54. E'54,391, '59,418.							
<i>Bezi Caen</i> . L. Syn. Bezi de Caen.							
<i>Bezi Chaumontelle Trois Gros</i> . Pr53. GenF'33,198,37,278. K'41,160. D'45,425, '57,428, '69,751. F277. AgrR'62,180. Syn. of Easter Beurre.							
<i>Bezi d'Alry</i> . K'32,134, 41,123. Syn. of Heri.							
<i>Bezi de Carn</i> . Cult'47,340. Hort'67,44. AllortA'68,79. D'69,699. Syn. of Bezi Caen.							
<i>Bezi de Caissoy</i> . C207. Pr125. H136. D'69,700. Syn. of Caissoy.							
<i>Bezi de Caissoy d'Eic</i> . D'69,700. T'85,555. Syn. of Caissoy d'Ete.							
<i>Bezi de Caissoy d'Heri</i> . T'75,540,85,555. Syn. of Caissoy.							
<i>Bezi de Chassery</i> . Pr124. Syn. of Echasserie.							
<i>Bezi de Chassery</i> . K'32,152, 41,122. Syn. of Caissoy.							
<i>Bezi de Chassery</i> . D'45,435. E'54,397, '59,381. Syn. of Echasserie.							
<i>Bezi de Chassery</i> . K'32,154. Syn. of Echasserie.							
<i>Bezi de Chaumontelle</i> . C200. Pr94. K'32,143, 41,123. GenF'33,196. D'45,433, '57,569, '69,718. E'54,350, '59,372. F279. H136. T'75,540,85,555. Syn. of Chaumontel.							
<i>Bezi d'Echassie</i> . E'54,397, '59,381. Syn. of Echasserie.							
<i>Bezi d'Echassie</i> . D'45,435, '57,569, 753. F280. Syn. of Echasserie.							
<i>Bezi d'Echassie</i> . T'75,540,85,555. F280. Syn. of Echasserie.							
<i>Bezi d'Esperen</i> . MassH'51,150, 53,221. E'54,355. AgrA'64,242. MagoffH'57,156,167. T'85,555.							
<i>Bezi d'Heri</i> . GenF'33,197. Cult'39,66. K'41,123. D'45,428, '57,565, '69,700. E'54,391, '59,418. F278. T'75,540,85,555. Syn. of Heri.							
<i>Bezi d'Heri</i> . Pr38. K'32,134. Syn. of Heri.							
<i>Bezi de Heri</i> . K'32,152. D'69,700. Syn. of Heri.							
<i>Bezi de la Motte</i> . Pr70. K'32,134, 41,121. GenF'33,193. Cult'39,66. D'45,398, '57,475, '69,700. MagoffH'47,342. W'667. E'54,355, '59,367. Agr'54,251. H136. F278.							
<i>Bezi de la Motte</i> . A'62,86. T'75,540,85,555. LaH'77,387, '78,294. FGA'67,322. IllH'96,198. Syn. of La Motte.							
<i>Bezi de la Pierre</i> . D'69,701. Syn. of Pierre.							
<i>Bezi de Louvaine</i> . Pr205. K'32,164, 41,138. Syn. of Louvain.							
<i>Bezi de Montigny</i> . Pr48. K'32,134, 41,121. GenF'37,277. D'45,368, '57,474, '69,701. Cole'163. W'667. B'51,303. MagoffH'48,198. E'54,355, '59,366. H136. F278.							
<i>Bezi de Napes</i> . T'75,540,85,555. Syn. of Montigny.							
<i>Bezi de Napes</i> . E'54,355, '59,367.							

Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1839, p. 37.

Thought to be a seedling of Rance.

Described by Rivers.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Bezi de Naples</i> . H136. Syn. of Naples.									
<i>Bezi de Quatort d'Éte</i> . F187. Syn. of Caluso d'Éte.									
<i>Bezi de Spadlerd</i> . E'54,390. Syn. of Spadlerd.									
<i>Bezi des Vétérans</i> . MagoffH'51,472. D'57,540, 69,701. F278. EFABC'00. Syn. of Vétérans.									
<i>Bezi de Vascos</i> . E'59,405. T'75,540, '85,555. Syn. of Vétérans.									
<i>Bezi Esperen</i> . F278. D'69,701. Syn. of Bezi Esperen, Bezy d'Esperen.									
<i>Bezi Gohault</i> . F278. Hort'61,317. D'69,701.	Belg.	robtp							
<i>Bezi l'Echasserie</i> . D'57,572, '69,753. Syn. of Echasserie.	Fr.	robo	m						Raised by Maj. P. J. Esperen. Originated in 1845.
<i>Bezi Mini</i> . Cult'00,312. C'Gen'XVI,174. D'69,702. Syn. of Mai.									
<i>Bezi Prococ</i> . D'69,695. Syn. of Prococ.									
<i>Bezi Quasot d'Éte</i> . MagoffH'57,259. Syn. of Quasot.									
<i>Bezi Reinhardt</i> . MagoffH'55,146. Syn. of Reinhardt.									
<i>Bezi Royal</i> . Gen'F'33,197. D'45,428, '57,565. E'54,391, '50,418. F278. Syn. of Heri.									
<i>Bezi Saint Vaast</i> . F278. Syn. of Vaast.									
<i>Bezi Sanspareil</i> . E'51,313. E'54,354, '59,367. OH'06,58. THH'69,156.	For.	robtp	s	gyru	mj	p	vg-b	vl	Apparently distinct from Bezy Sanspareil of Downing.
<i>Bezi Tardif</i> . MassH'51,180. Syn. of Bezi Tardif.	For.								In Field's list of undescribed varieties.
<i>Bezi Tardif</i> . F278. Syn. Bezi Tardif.									
<i>Bezi Vaet</i> . Gen'F'33,88. Cult'39,96. K'41,158. D'45,428, '57,475, '69,702. MagoffH'50,295. E'54,390, '50,391. F278. T'75,540, '85,555. Syn. of Vaet.									
<i>Bezi Vétérans</i> . MagoffH'46,146. Syn. of Vétérans.									
<i>Bezy de Caluso</i> . F125. K'32,143. Syn. of Caluso.									
<i>Bezy de Chassery</i> . F124. Syn. of Echasserie.									
<i>Bezy de Chaumontel</i> . F194. Gen'F'37,78. Syn. of Chaumontel.									
<i>Bezy d'Esperen</i> . MagoffH'48,298. D'57,476, '69,701. T'75,540, '85,555. Syn. of Bezi Esperen.									
<i>Bezy d'Esperen</i> (erroneously). D'57,455. E'59,367. Syn. of D'Esperen.									
<i>Bezy de la Motte</i> . F179. Syn. of La Motte.									
<i>Bezy de Louvain</i> . K'41,138. D'57,486, '69,734. F279. Syn. of Louvain.									
<i>Bezy de Quessoy</i> . F125. D'69,700. Syn. of Caluso.									
<i>Bezy de Saint Vaast</i> . K'32,190. Syn. of Vaet.									
<i>Bezy de St. Waal</i> . Hort'39,294. Syn. of Beaumont.									
<i>Bezy Garnier</i> . MagoffH'52,259. D'57,476. F278. E'59,367. T'75,541, '85,555. Syn. of Garnier.									
<i>Bezy Quasot d'Éte</i> . D'57,476. F278. E'59,367. T'75,541, '85,555. Syn. of Quasot.									
<i>Bezy Sanspareil</i> . D'57,476, '69,702. F278. H136. MichH'74,50. T'75,541, '85,555. Syn. of Sanspareil.									
<i>Bezy Vaet</i> . F198. K'32,190, '41,158. Syn. of Vaet.									
<i>Bezy Waal</i> . F198. Syn. of Vaet.									
<i>Bezy Waal</i> . Hort'39,294. Syn. of Beaumont.									

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.		Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Blakeny. R. Syn. Blakeny Red										In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Blakeny Red.</i> EFABC'00. Syn. of Blakeny.										
<i>Blanc.</i> T'97,686. Syn. of White Doyenne.										
<i>Blanche.</i> T'97,688. Syn. of Spanish.										
<i>Blanche Fleur.</i> Cult. 48,369. F'78. Syn. of Little Blauquet.										
<i>Blanche Sannier.</i> R. Syn. Mademoiselle Blanche Sannier.										
<i>Blanchet.</i> R. Syn. Claude Blanchet.										
<i>Blanc Per Ne.</i> WHRII,530.		Eng.?		l	m				vi	
<i>Blanc Per Ne.</i> MagroH 32,236. F'54,128. D'57,575. W'90,800. Hort'63,251. Syn. of Laval.										
<i>Blanc.</i> Hort'56,184. Col. D'69,888. Syn. of Sheldon.										
<i>Blauquet.</i> R. Syn. Blauquet a long queue, Long-Stalked Blauquet.			p	s	q		s		e	
<i>Blauquet.</i> P'15. K'32,128. EFABC'00. Syn. of Blauquette.										
<i>Blauquet Ateide.</i> F'78. K'32,129. F'11,118. Cult'50,45. Syn. of Blauquet.										
<i>Blauquet a long queue.</i> F'16. K'41,118. A'54,237. Syn. of Blauquet (Long Stem).										
<i>Blauquet Anasterre.</i> D'69,703. Syn. of Anasterre.										
<i>Blauquet Anasterre.</i> D'69,703. Syn. of Anasterre.										
<i>Blauquet d'Austrasia.</i> D'69,703. Syn. of Anasterre.										
<i>Blauquet de Saintonge.</i> F'78. Syn. of Saintonge.										
<i>Blauquet Le Gros.</i> F'78. Syn. of Blauquette.										
<i>Blauquet (Long Stem).</i> L. Syn. Blauquet a long queue, Blauquette a long queue, Blauquette a long queue, Gillette Longue, Long Stalk Blauquet, Long Stalked Blauquet, Long Stalked Blauquet, Long Tailed Blauquette, Skinless, Sucree blanche, Suchrin blanc d'Eve.			r	s	gy	brd	sv	g	e	A very old and probably valueless variety.
<i>Blauquet Le Petit.</i> F'78. Syn. of Little Blauquet.										
<i>Blauquet Petit.</i> P'17. D'69,802. Syn. of Little Blauquet.		For.								In Field's list of undescribed varieties.
<i>Blauquet Precocite.</i> F'78.										
<i>Blauquet St-Onge.</i> HAJ'88,74. Syn. of Onge.										
<i>Blauquette.</i> P'15. Syn. Bagpipe of Anjou, Blauquet, Blauquet de Florence, Blauquet le Gros, Great Blauquet, Great Blauquette, Gros Blauquet, Grosse Blauquet, Grosse Blauquette, Grosse Rol Louis, Musette d'Anjou, Rol Louis.		Fr.	ovp	s	yb	mj	s	g	me	An old French sort of doubtful value.
<i>Blauquette.</i> K'32,128. Syn. of Little Blauquet.										
<i>Blauquette a long queue.</i> P'16. MagroH 43,130. 50,265. D'69,804. Syn. of Blauquet (Long Stem).										
<i>Blauquette a long queue.</i> K'41,118. D'69,804. Syn. of Blauquet (Long Stem).										
<i>Bleeker.</i> L. Syn. Bleeker's Meadow, Feaster, Frankford, Heidelberg, Large Seckel, Meadow Feaster, Meadow Pear, Spice, Spice Butter.		P'a.	r	s	yb	j	p	g	m	Found in a meadow near Philadelphia, Pa.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Bon Chretien</i> . Pr59. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Sum.)									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> . D'69,884. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Win.)									Exhibited at meeting of Western New York Horticultural Society, 1906, p. 140.
<i>Bon Chretien</i> Antoine Lorimer. WNYH'06,140									Rejected by Congress of Fruit Growers in 1849.
<i>Bon Chretien</i> Barnet. D'69,666.									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> Bruxelles. A 54,238									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Amiens Chartraine. F279. D'69,716. Syn. of Catillac.									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Auch. F194. K 32,143, 41,128. Syn. of Auch.									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Auch. Cult. 47,340. D'69,884. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Win.)									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Angouise. F278. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Win.)									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Angouise Variegated. F278. Syn. of Angouise Var.									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Autonne. D'69,888. Syn. of Spanish.									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> de Bruxelles. K 41,168. Cult. 47,340. D'69,704. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> Fondante.									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> de Chaumont. D'69,718. Syn. of Chaumont.									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> de Condamine. D'69,884. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Win.)									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Espérance. C209. F'093. K 32,140, 41,122. D'45,430, 37,507, 69,538.									
E'54,301, 59,418. H138. F278. E'FABC'00. Syn. of Spanish.									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Esperou. MagofH'50,285.									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Ete. DomEnelV.190. C187. F'59,61. GenF'37,277. K 32,132, 41,120.									Rejected by Congress of Fruit Growers, 1849.
D'45,346, 57,583, 69,883. MagofH'49,440. A'54,238. E'54,309, 59,424. H193. F282.									
T 83,571. E'FABC'00. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Sum.)									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Ete Jaune. D'69,883. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Sum.)									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Ete Musque. K 41,119. MagofH'43,130. D'69,704. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> Fondante.									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Ete Musque. Pr61. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Sum.)									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Hier. C203. Pr92. K 32,150, 41,125. GenF'37,228. A 54,238. F278.									
H137. D'69,884. E'FABC'00. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Win.)									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> de Kalongas. FGAofO'91,11. Syn. of Kalongas.									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> de Nouvelle. K 41,161. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Fl.)									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> de Rance. F277. Syn. of Rance.									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> de Rance. D'69,696. Syn. of Rance.									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> de Rance. D'69,884. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Win.)									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> de Tours. F228. Syn. of Charlotte.									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> de Ture. K 32,143. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Win.)									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> de Vernols. D'69,884. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Win.)									
<i>Bon Chretien</i> de Vernon. D'69,819. Syn. of Napoleon.									

Fl.?	obop	m	yru	coj	vp	vg	m	vi	Strictly a culinary variety.
<i>Bon Chretien dore d'Espagne.</i> D'69,883. Syn. of Spanish. <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Fl.). L. Syns <i>Bon Chretien</i> de Nouvelle, <i>Bon Chretien</i> Flemish, <i>Bon Chretien</i> Nouvelle Espece, <i>Bon Chretien</i> Ture, <i>Bon Chretien</i> Vernols, Flem- ish <i>Bon Chretien</i> , <i>Poire Turque</i> , <i>Turkish Bon Chretien</i> , <i>Turkish Pear</i> . <i>Bon Chretien Flemish.</i> B'51,311. T'85,555. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Fl.). <i>Bon Chretien Fondante.</i> F'278. Syn. of <i>Charlotte</i> . <i>Bon Chretien Fondante.</i> Pr199. K'32,198. 41,139. GenF'33,198. M'38,82. 44,09. 47. 72. Cult'39,66. D'45,270. 57,477. 69,704. Colel63. MagoH'45,59. Agr'54,243. E'54,336. 59,338. F'278. H137. T'75,271. 85,289. 97,467. Syns. <i>Bon Chretien</i> de Bruxelles, <i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Ete Musque, <i>Bon Chretien</i> Fondante Musque, <i>Bon</i> <i>Chretien</i> Musque, <i>Bon Chretien</i> Musque Fondante, <i>Bugardia</i> , <i>Melting Bon Chre-</i> <i>tien</i> , <i>Musk Summer Bon Chretien</i> , <i>Petit Musque</i> , <i>Poullice</i> . <i>Bon Chretien Fondante Musque.</i> D'69,704. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien Fondante</i> . <i>Bon Chretien Fred Haudry.</i> W'NYH'93,44. 96,25. E&B'94. EFABC'90. Syn. of <i>Saury</i> . <i>Bon Chretien Gratioli.</i> D'69,883. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Sum.). <i>Bon Chretien Jaune d'Automne.</i> D'69,883. Syn. of Spanish. <i>Bon Chretien Lampion.</i> D'69,704. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Sum.). <i>Bon Chretien Musque.</i> K'32,139. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien Fondante</i> . <i>Bon Chretien Musque.</i> Pr61. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Sum.). <i>Bon Chretien Musque Fondante.</i> D'69,704. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien Fondante</i> . <i>Bon Chretien Napoleon.</i> K'41,143. Cult'47,340. F'281. Syn. of <i>Napoleon</i> . <i>Bon Chretien No. 15.</i> EFABC'90. [On trial by number at Agassiz, B. C.] <i>Bon Chretien Nouvelle Espece.</i> Pr296. K'32,163. GenF'37,278. Syn. of <i>Bon</i> <i>Chretien</i> (Fl.). <i>Bon Chretien of Brussels.</i> MagoH'50,295. <i>Bon Chretien Panache.</i> Pr64. K'41,128. Syn. of Auch. <i>Bon Chretien Panache.</i> K'32,184. 41,152. Syn. of <i>Striped Bon Chretien</i> . <i>Bon Chretien Provost.</i> IaH'79,325. Syn. of <i>Provost</i> . <i>Bon Chretien Sans pepins.</i> Cult'47,340. <i>Bon Chretien Soblesky.</i> FG.AofO'92,97. <i>Bon Chretien Spanish.</i> Pr53. Cult'39,66. G84. B'51,311. A'54,238. F'278. E'59. 391. T'85,556. Syn. of Spanish. <i>Bon Chretien Sprin.</i> D'69,883. Syn. of Spanish. <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Sum.). L. Syns. <i>Apothecaries Pear</i> , <i>Beauleur</i> , <i>Bon Chretien</i> , <i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Ete, <i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Ete Jaune, <i>Bon Chretien</i> d'Ete Musque, <i>Gute Christbirne</i> , <i>Die Sommer Christbirne</i> , <i>Canelle d'Ete</i> , <i>De Duchesse</i> , <i>Die</i> <i>Gracioli</i> (of the French), <i>Gracioli Rouge</i> , <i>Gracioli</i> , <i>Gratioli d'Ete</i> , <i>Gratioli di</i> <i>Roma</i> , <i>Gros Bon Chretien</i> , <i>Gros Bon Chretien</i> Beauleur, <i>Gros Bon Chretien</i> <i>d'Ete</i> , <i>Jargonelle</i> , <i>Large Sugar</i> (of some), <i>Musk Summer Bon Chretien</i> , <i>Reed's</i> <i>Seedling</i> , <i>Richards Beurre</i> (of some), <i>Safran d'Ete</i> , <i>Schells</i> , <i>Sommer Apothe-</i> <i>kesbirne</i> , <i>Sommer Gute Christbirne</i> Grosse, <i>Sommer Gute Christbirne</i> , <i>Stuy-</i> <i>vesant</i> , <i>Summer Bon Chretien</i> , <i>Summer Good Christian</i> , <i>William Powell</i> . <i>Bon Chretien Turc.</i> Pr236. Cult'39,66. K'41,161. D'45,439. 57,567. 69,761. E'54, 391. 59,418. H157. IndH'90,158. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Fl.). <i>Bon Chretien Vernols.</i> K'41,161. D'69,761. Syn. of <i>Bon Chretien</i> (Fl.).									

Rejected by Congress of Fruit
Growers, 1849.Not described.
Introduced from Lithuania.Cultivated throughout Europe as
early as 1500.

[illegible]

Mass.	Eng.	r	m	gyr	coj	s	vi	Originated at Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1892.
Brookline, Mass H'66, 45								
Broom Park, K'32,165, 41,158. MagOH'43,125, 47,153, '55, 46. D'45, 428. B'51, 314. E'54, 391, '59, 419. H139. F278. T'75, 541, '85, 556, '97, 600. Syn. Sobden Court.	Eng.	robo		gyru	co	a	m	
Brougham. MagOH'43,125, 47,152. D'45, 354, '57, 568, '69, 710. A'54, 238. E'54, 356, '59, 419. H139. F278. T'75, 541, '85, 556, '97, 600. Syns. Beurre Brougham, Brougham Hall.								
Brougham Hall. K'32,165. Syn. of Brougham.								
Brow, R. Syn. Brow's Seedling.								
Brow's Seedling. MagOH'40,173. Syn. of Brow	Fr.	oblobo	l	gyrub	bmj	sa	vg	Very highly esteemed, especially in France.
Brown, L. Syns. Amboise or Ambroise, Amboise or L'Amboise, Badham's Beurre, Beurre Brown, Beurre Butier, Beurre d'Ambreuse, Beurre d'Ambroise, Beurre d'Anjou (incorrectly), Beurre de Caen, Beurre d'Isambert, Beurre d'Or, Beurre de Treveuren, Beurre Dole (of the French), Beurre Dorée, Beurre du Roi, Beurre Gris, Beurre Gris d'Automne, Beurre Isambert, Beurre of Dub, Beurre Rouge, Beurre Rousse, Beurre Roux, Beurre Vert, Brown Beurre, Brown Butter, Cienbart, Gismart, Golden Beurre, Gray Beurre, Gray Butter, Green Butter, Grey Beurre, Gris, Isambert, Isambert le Bon, Isambert of Normandy, La Beurre, Poire d'Ambroise, Red Beurre, Red Butter, Rouge, True Golden Beurre.								
Brown Admiral. K'32,132. Syn. of Archduke.								
Brown Admiral. P'24. D'69, 562. Syn. of Archduke.								
Brown Beurre. GairCal'87. C188. T'11, 86. F'49. K'32,135, 41,120. SW. Gen- eral. Cult'90, 37, 47, 69, 710. W'608. Cole'163. Agr'54, 242, '96, 366.								
NW F'45, 45, 46. W'11, 11, 174. CGenV1, 31. T'75, 271, '85, 289, '97, 408. Syn. of Brown.								
Brown Butter. IIIH'08, 311.								
Brown Butter. F'238. Syn. of Brown								
Brown Field. R. Syn. Brown's Field Pear.								
Brown's Field Pear. SW. IndH'72, 110. Syn. of Brown Field.								
Brown Orange. P'32. K'32,128. Syn. of Messina.								
Brown St. Germain. D'45, 447, '57, 548, '69, 837. E'54, 355, '59, 348. Syn. of Germain (Prince).								
Brown Warden. MagOH'43,132. Syn. of Warden.								
Bruce. TVM'59.								
Brugmanabrine. MagOH'33, 395. MassH'47, 69, '49, 98. Syn. Brugman's Birne.								
Brugman's Birne. A'54, 238. Syn. of Brugmanabrine.								
Bruneau, L. Syns. Bergamotte Crassane de Bruneau, Bergamotte Crassane d'Elver, Beurre Bruneau, Crassane Bruneau, Crassane d'Elver, Crassane d'Elver de Bruneau, De Saint Herblain, Winter Crassane.		obtp	m	yb	j	va	g	
Bruno de Bosco. MassH'46, 88. MagOH'50, 295. Cult'50, 45. A'54, 238.								
Brussels. L. Syns. Belle de Aout, Belle d'Aout or August, Belle de Brussels, Belle de Bruxelles, Belle of Brussels, Bellissime d'Automne, Beauty of Autumn, Beauty of Brussels, Beurre de Bruxelles, De Coq, Des Dames, Gros Muscadille, Muscadille, Muscat Rouge, Nouv-Cours Complet, Petit Certeau, Supreme, Vermillon, Vermillon d'Automne, Vermillon des Dames, million d'Automne.		ap	ml	ey		s	p	me
Brutte Bonne. K'32,132, 41,130.								Not described.

For.	t	ml	m	vi	In Field's list of undescribed varieties.				
<i>Calebasse Carajon</i> . D'98,873. Syn. of Van Marum.									
<i>Calebasse d'Albrét</i> . D'57,335, '98,678. Syn. of Albrét.									
<i>Calebasse de Bayay</i> . F287.									
<i>Calebasse d'Éle</i> . MagofH'52,440. E'54,338. D'57,479, '98,713. H141. F278. T75, 342, 85,556, '97,697. Syn. of Summer Calebasses.									
<i>Calebasse d'Hiver</i> . MagofH'45,111.									
<i>Calebasse de Holland</i> . D'98,873. Syn. of Van Marum.									
<i>Calebasse de Hollande</i> . D'43,374, '57,568, '96,712. E'54,392, '98,419. F278. Syn. of Calebasse.									
<i>Calebasse de la Vigne</i> . Agr'75,231. [Not identified as a named sort]									
<i>Calebasse Delignée</i> . MagofH'54,136. E'54,392, '98,419. Mash'56,19. Hort'57,214. D'57,478, '98,783. F278. T75,542, '85,556, '97,696. Syn. of Delignée.									
<i>Calebasse de Nerckmans</i> . MagofH'72,150. D'98,873. Syn. of Van Marum.									
<i>Calebasse d'Octobre</i> . OH'71,48. T85,556, '97,697. Syn. of Calebasse (Oct.).									
<i>Calebasse d'Octobre</i> . AH'71,61. A71,55. Mash'71,41. Hort'72,102. Dag-145. Syn. of October.									
<i>Calebasse Double Extra</i> . D'43,374, '57,568, '96,712. E'54,392, '98,419. F278. Syn. of Calebasse.									
<i>Calebasse du Nord</i> . D'98,873. Syn. of Van Marum.									
<i>Calebasse Fondante</i> . K'32,166, '41,140.									
<i>Calebasse Green</i> . F278. Syn. of Calebasse Vert.									
<i>Calebasse Grosse</i> . D'43,374. E'54,392, '98,419. H140,162. Syn. of Van Marum.									
<i>Calebasse Impériale</i> . D'98,873. Syn. of Van Marum.									
<i>Calebasse Marianne</i> . K'32,166, '41,136. Syn. of Paradise.									
<i>Calebasse Monstre</i> . F278. D'98,873. Syn. of Van Marum.									
<i>Calebasse Monstrueuse</i> . D'98,873. Syn. of Van Marum.									
<i>Calebasse Monstrueuse du Nord</i> . D'98,873. Syn. of Van Marum.									
<i>Calebasse Muske</i> . F278. Syn. of Calebasse.									
<i>Calebasse Musque</i> . K'32,154, '41,132. D'98,712. Syn. of Calebasse.									
<i>Calebasse Overdieck</i> . EFABC'90. Syn. of Overdieck.									
<i>Calebasse (Oct.)</i> . L. Syn. Calebasse d'Octobre.									
<i>Calebasse passe Rose</i> . Hort'49,194. Syn. of Rose.									
<i>Calebasse Princesse Marianne</i> . D'98,873. Syn. of Paradise.									
<i>Calebasse Royale</i> . D'98,873. Syn. of Van Marum.									
<i>Calebasse Sterckmans</i> . D'98,698. Syn. of Sterckmans.									
<i>Calebasse Tougaard</i> . MagofH'55,150, 159. D'57,556, '97,713. F278. EFABC'00. Syn. of Tougaard.									
<i>Calebasse Vasse</i> . K'41,140. D'98,682. Syn. of Caplaumont.									
<i>Calebasse Verte</i> . F278. Syn. Calebasse Green.									
<i>Calhoun</i> . Mash'43,5. MagofH'45,252, '46,146, '57,250, '49,43. Cult'45,175. D'45, 376, '57,478, '98,714. Cole'67. E'54,357, '59,399. H141. F272. T75,542, '85,556, '97,697.									
<i>Californa</i> . MagofH'52,151.									
<i>Calixte Mignot</i> . EFABC'00. CanExFR'01,547.									
<i>Caloset</i> . EFABC'00.									
<i>Calus Roset</i> . D'98,883. Syn. of Rose (Sum.).									
<i>Calvin</i> . F36,37. EFABC'00. CanExFR'03,430.									
<i>Camak</i> . R. Syn. Camak's, Camak's Rousset.									
	ovip	m	ybat	bjm	ss	g	m		Originated by Calvin Throop. Originated by James Camak, of Athens, Ga.
	obip	ms	yrp	bj	p	g	ml		In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
	robl	l	gy	j	p	g	m		In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
	robl	m	yrp	cogb	g	m			In Field's list of undescribed varieties.
									Raised by Governor Edwards, of New Haven, Conn.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.		Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Onaka's</i> . A'58,185. AGR'58,304. Syn. of Camak.										
<i>Onaka's Rousselle</i> . GAR'60,320. Syn. of Camak.										
<i>Quintbridge Sugar Pear</i> . D'45,292, 57,506, 99,779. MagoffH'54,460. E'54,370, 59,380.										
T'75,542, 85,557, 97,697. Syn. of Harvard.										
<i>Cambroul</i> . L. Syn. Glorie de Cambroul.		For.								Probably identical with Combrone.
<i>Camburnether</i> . MagoffH'38,305.										Not described.
<i>Camerling</i> . AGR'56,356. E'59,371. D'69,714. Syns. Camerling d'Allemange.		Fl.	p	m	yb	jm	sp	g	m	A native of Flanders.
<i>Camerlingue</i> . Camerlyn.										
<i>Camerling d'Allemange</i> . MagoffH'43,125. D'69,714. Syn. of Camerling.										
<i>Camerlingue</i> . D'69,714. Syn. of Camerling.										
<i>Camerlyn</i> . D'57,479, 69,714. F'78. T'75,542, 85,557, 97,697. Syn. of Camerling.										
<i>Camille de Rohan</i> . D'69,714. Syn. of Rohan.		Ala.		vi						
<i>Campbell</i> . R. Syn. Bill Campbell.			obot	m	gyru	jm	vs	g	m	A supposed seedling of Angouleme. Exhibited by Col. M. P. Wilder at meeting of Massachusetts Horticultural Society, 1871.
<i>Campbreneil</i> . R. Syn. Beurre Campbreneil.										Named by Congress of Fruit Growers in 1849.
<i>Canadaalqua</i> . MagoffH'50,36. B'51,299. W'69. E'54,357, 59,370. AGR'56,365. D'57,479, 69,714. H'141. F'772. A'58,57. MoH'69,498. T'75,261, 85,279, 97,458.		Conn.	ap	ml	yr	com	v	g	me	Supposed to have been introduced in 1835.
Syn. Catherine.										
<i>Canas</i> . L. Syns. Bon Parent, Bouvier, Bow Parent, La Canas, Las Canas.		Belg.	ovp	ms	gyru	bmj	ap	vg	m	
<i>Candolle</i> . L. Syn. DeCandolle.										
<i>Candelle d'Ete</i> . D'69,863. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Sum.)										
<i>Candelle</i> . D'69,674. Syn. of Bose.										
<i>Canner's Japan</i> . T'97,706. Hu'701. Syn. of Golden Russet.										
<i>Canning</i> . Gen F'33,198. K'41,160. D'45,425, 57,428, 69,751. E'54,317, 59,331. F'277.										
AGR'62,180. T'85,310. Syn. of Easter Beurre.										
<i>Canning d'Hiver</i> . D'69,751. Syn. of Easter Beurre.										
<i>Canning Seigneur d'Hiver</i> . T'97,697. Syn. of Easter Beurre.										
<i>Canrobert</i> . L. Syn. General Canrobert.		Fr.	ovp	m	gru	b	p	p	ml	Named for the French General Canrobert.
<i>Cantelope</i> . MagoffH'38,231, 466, 443, 388, 45,437, 49,43. MassH'43,5. Cult'45,175.		Conn.	r	s	yr	cobr		g	m	Originated by Governor Edwards, of Connecticut.
D'68,714.		Miss.	ovt	m	gyb	bj	apr	vg	me	Originated in 1833 in Madison County, Miss.
<i>Canton</i> . CGenIX,128. P'95,37.										
<i>Cape May</i> . SW. AGR'49,272. D'63,751. Syn. of Easter Bergamot.										Published by M'Mahon in Gardener's Calendar, 1896.
<i>Cape May Winter</i> . GarCal587.										In Field's list of undescribed varieties.
<i>Caperon</i> . L. Syn. Henri Caperon.		For								In Field's list of undescribed varieties.
<i>Caperon du Mons</i> . F'79.										

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Canak's</i> . A78,185. AGR'58,304. Syn. of Canak.									
<i>Canak's Rousselet</i> . Garm'00,220. Syn. of Canak.									
<i>Canbridge Sugar Pear</i> . D'43,292, 57,506, 99,779. MagofH'54,460. E'54,370, 59,389.									
T'75,542, 85,557, 97,997. Syn. of Harvard.	For.								
<i>Cambroul</i> . L. Syn. Gloire de Cambroul.									
<i>Camburnether</i> . MagofH'38,305.									
<i>Camerling</i> . Agr'56,356. E'59,371. D'60,714. Syns. Camerling d'Allemande.	Fl.	p	m	yb	jm	sp	g	m	Probably identical with Combrone.
<i>Camerlingue</i> . Camerlyn.									Not described.
<i>Camerlingue d'Allemande</i> . MagofH'43,125. D'69,714. Syn. of Camerling.									A native of Flanders.
<i>Camerlingue</i> . D'60,714. Syn. of Camerling.									
<i>Camerlyn</i> . D'57,479, 96,714. F278. T'75,542, 85,557, 97,997. Syn. of Camerling.									
<i>Camille de Rohan</i> . D'69,714. Syn. of Rohan.	Ala.		vi		jm	vs	g	m	
<i>Campbell</i> . R. Syn. Bill Campbell.		obot	m	gyru	jm				
<i>Campreneil</i> . R. Syn. Beurre Campreneil.									
<i>Canadalkua</i> . MagofH'50,36. B'51,299. Wg99. E'54,357, 59,370. Agr'56,365. D'57,479, 96,714. H141. F272. A'58,57. MoH'69,468. T'75,261, 85,279, 97,458.	Conn.	ap	ml	yr	com	v	g	me	A supposed seedling of Angouleme. Exhibited by Col. M. P. Wilder at meeting of Massachusetts Horticultural Society, 1871.
Syn. Catherine.									Named by Congress of Fruit Growers in 1849.
<i>Canas</i> . L. Syns. Bon Parent, Bouvier, Bow Parent, La Canas, Las Canas.	Belg.	ovp	ms	gyru	bmj	ap	vg	m	Supposed to have been introduced in 1835.
<i>Candolle</i> . L. Syn. DeCandolle.			m		j		g	me	
<i>Candolle d'Ete</i> . D'60,863. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Sum.)									
<i>Candolle</i> . D'60,674. Syn. of Bose.									
<i>Canner's Japan</i> . T'97,706. Huc'01. Syn. of Golden Russet.									
<i>Canning</i> . Gen'F'33,198. R'41,160. D'45,425, 57,428, 66,751. E'54,317, 59,331. F277.									
Agr'62,180. T'85,310. Syn. of Easter Beurre.									
<i>Canning d'Hiver</i> . D'69,751. Syn. of Easter Beurre.									
<i>Canning Seigneur d'Hiver</i> . T'97,697. Syn. of Easter Beurre.									
<i>Canrobert</i> . L. Syn. General Canrobert.	Fr.	ovp	m	gru	b	p	p	ml	Named for the French General Canrobert.
<i>Cantelope</i> . MagofH'38,221, 466, 43,388, 45,437, 49,43. MassH'43,5. Cult'45,175.	Conn.	r	s	yr	cobr		g	m	Originated by Governor Edwards, of Connecticut.
D'68,714.	Miss.	ovt	m	gyb	bj	apr	vg	me	Originated in 1833 in Madison County, Miss.
<i>Canton</i> . CGenIX,128. P'95,37.									
<i>Cape May</i> . SW. Agr'49,272. D'60,751. Syn. of Easter Bergamot.									Published by M'Mahon in Gardener's Calendar, 1806.
<i>Cape May Winner</i> . GarCal57.									In Field's list of undescribed varieties.
<i>Caperon</i> . L. Syn. Henri Caperon.	For								In Field's list of undescribed varieties.
<i>Caperon du Mons</i> . F279.									

[illegible]

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Castle Garden. OH'91,18.....	Ohio.								From seed of a pear purchased at Castle Garden, N. Y.
<i>Catalac.</i> Cole174. Syn. of Catillac									
<i>Cat Burni.</i> Pr89. K'32,152. Syn.									
<i>Catchet.</i> L. Syn. Adolphe Catchet.....	Fr.	obtp	m	yr	gj	vs		me	Originated by Andre Leroy, of Angers, France. Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1843, p. 130, as Beurre Catherine.
Catharine. Th186. Syn. Beurre Catherine.....									
<i>Catharine.</i> Pr20. IndF'40,182. Syn. of Early Roisselet.									
<i>Catharine Gardette.</i> A'36,90,'99,15. Agr 36,368. D'57,479,'69,715. F'272. T'85,557.									
Syn. of Gardette.									
<i>Catherine.</i> MagofH'50,36. B'51,299. Wg68. E'54,357,'59,370. D'57,479,'69,714. Syn.									
of Canandaigua.									
<i>Catherine Gardette.</i> Cult'57,141. E'59,370. T'75,542,'85,557,'97,697.									
<i>Catherine Lambre.</i> MagofH'54,235. F'279. D'69,716. T'75,542,'85,557,'97,697. Syn.									
of Lambre (Catherine)									
Cathinka. Agr 54,543,'58,421.....									
<i>Catillac.</i> Pr109. K'32,150,'41,128. M'38,95,'44,83,'47,84. Cult'39,66. D'45,482,'57,568.	Fr.	t	vl	ybr	cog		g	vl	Catalogued by R. H. Robey, of Virginia. Scarcely eatable except when cooked.
A'69,716. B'51,211,'83,370. Wg69. Agr 54,543,297. E'54,352,'59,419. H141. F'279.									
A'52,66. MolH'69,498. T'75,287,'85,355,'97,478. Syn. Bell'Be de Mante, Black									
Pear of Worcester. Bon Curedon d'Amiens Chartruse, Catillac, Catalac, Chate									
treuse, Corillard de Livres, De Bell Argentine, De Citronille, De Gros Râteau									
Raisinette, De Tour Tempes, 40 ounce, Franc Reel, Grand Mogul, Grand Mon									
arque, Grand Tamerlan, Grosse Mogul, Gros Gilet, Gros Râteau, Gros Râteau									
Gris, Gros Thomas, Katzenkop, Loye, Pear, Mispelle, Bonelot, Monstre,									
Monstreuse de Landes, Parkinson's Warden, Poire d'Une Livre, Pound Pear,									
Quarante Once, Roi de Louvain, Tete de Chart, Teton de Venus,									
<i>Catalac.</i> MagofH'49,111,'57,165. B'51,315. Hort 54,310. E'54,357,'59,370. D'57,	Belg.	obop	sm	yrn	gbmj	v	g-vg	ml	Raised by Masj. Esperen.
480, 69,716. H141. F'278. A'62,66. T'75,542,'85,557,'97,478.									
<i>Cavalier de la Salle.</i> EFA'BC'00. Syn. of Lasalle.									
<i>Cecil.</i> L. Syn. Admiral Cecil, Amiral Cecil.....	Fr.	rov	ms	ybr	jmg		g	ml	Originated by W. C. Bryant, at Roslyn, Long Island, N. Y.
<i>Cedarmere.</i> Hort'63,276. D'69,716.....	N. Y.	r	s	gyru	jmg	s	g	me	
<i>Celeste.</i> F'210,277. Syn. of Did.....									
<i>Celestin.</i> MagofH'46,176. Hort'19. E'54,343,'59,413. Syn. of Le Clerc (Van Mons)									
<i>Celestinus.</i> D'69,777. Syn. of Hacon.....									
<i>Celline.</i> D'4,444, 57,552, 69,559. E'54,380,'59,403. F'281. Syn. of Pease Colmar.									
<i>Cent Couronne.</i> MagofH'51,472. F'278. D'69,822. Syn. of Oken.									
<i>Centennial of Ohio.</i> WNYH'99,91. Syn. of Louise.									

[illegible]

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Charbonniere</i> . D'69,722. Syn. of Collins.									
<i>Charles</i> . D'69,819. Syn. of Napoleon.									
<i>Charles Boissier</i> . D'69,717. Syn. of Bastinot.									
<i>Charles Bivort</i> . D'69,717. Syn. of Bivort (Chas.)									
<i>Charles Cognac</i> . WNYH'88,129. AofH'91,296. EFABC'00. CanExFR'03,422. Syn. of Cognac.									
<i>Charles d'Adrichem</i> . P1905. GenF'37,277. D'45,376, '57,509, '69,733. E'54,392, '59,419, '1142. Syn. of Hardenpont (Belg.).									
<i>Charles d'Adrichem</i> . K'32,167, '41,141, '49. GenF'33,197. D'45,401, '57,526. Cult'47,344. Syn. of Napoleon.									
<i>Charles Delight</i> (L.). L. Syn. Delices Charles, Delices Charles Van Mons, Delices de Charles, N'radow. L. Syn. Delices Charles.	Belg.	obop	m	gyru	jm	vs	m		Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.
<i>Charles Delight</i> (L.). L. Syn. Delices Charles.	Belg.	obo	ml	gru	b		me		Originated by Bouvier.
<i>Charles Delight</i> (L.). EFABC'00. Syn. of Delices Charles.	Belg.	robop	m	yrru	b	av	g	me	Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.
<i>Charles Frederick</i> . D'57,480, '69,718. F278. T'75,542, '85,557, '97,697.									
<i>Charles Gocnee</i> . AndN'95. Syn. of Cognac.									
<i>Charles of Asuria</i> . P1905. K'32,167. GenF'37,277. D'45,376, '57,509. Cult'47,340. E'54,392, '59,419. F279. MoH'59,21,31. T'75,542, '85,557, '97,697. Syn. of Hardenpont (Belg.).									
<i>Charles Smith</i> . D'57,480, '69,718. T'75,542, '85,557, '97,697. Syn. of Smet.									
<i>Charles Smith</i> . F278. Syn. of Smet.									
<i>Charles Van Hoochten</i> . MagoffH'31,472. MassH'51,189. Hort'53,30. A'54,44. Ag-E'54,245, '56,330. D'57,480, '69,718. T'75,542, '85,557, '97,697. Syn. of Van Hoochten.									
<i>Charles Van Hoochten</i> . E'54,358, '59,371. Syn. of Van Hoochten.									
<i>Charles Van Hoochten</i> . F278. Syn. of Van Hoochten.									
<i>Charles Van Houten</i> . Hort'70,355. Syn. of Van Hoochten.									
<i>Charles Van Mons</i> . MagoffH'30,296. A'54,238. E'54,358, '59,371. H142.	For.	obop	ms	ygr	mj	v	vg	l	
<i>Charlotte</i> . L. Syn. Bon Chretien de Ture, Bon Chretien Flemish, Bonne Charlotte.			m	y	db	sp	g	me	Rots at core if not gathered early.
<i>Charlotte de Brower</i> . K'41,170. MassH'51,189. D'57,481, '69,718. F278. MagoffH'52,39, '56,218, '57,472. T'75,542, '85,557, '97,697. Syn. of De Brower.									
<i>Charlotte (Princess)</i> . L. Syn. Princess Charlotte, Princesse Charlotte.	Belg.	obtp	m	g	mj	s	g	ml	Raised by Major Esperen.
<i>Charneau</i> . EFABC'00. CanExFR'04,490. Syn. Kottliche von Charneau.		ap	s	rubr	jm	s		m	In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Charneau</i> . T'97,697. Syn. of Brabant.	Fr.	r	m	y	jmb		vg	m	Originated at Angers, France, in 1838.
<i>Charraon</i> . L. Syn. Beurre Charraon.									
<i>Chartreuse</i> . F278. Syn. of Catillac.									
<i>Chartreux</i> . L. Syn. Poire des Champs des Chartreux, Poire des Chartreux.	For.		l	y	bm	s		me	Not described.
<i>Chase</i> . MagoffH'36,79.									

Chasseurs.	D'60.735.	Syns.	Des Chasseurs, Hunter, Polre des Chasseurs, Sporte- Chat. Brule.	P'89.	K'32.152.	Magoffi'43.130.	A'54.238,56.12.	Syn. of Chat Brule.	Belg...	obtp	m	gyru	big	p	g-vg	m	Supposed to have originated with Dr. John Van Mons.
Chat Brule. <td>P'89.</td> <td>K'32.152.</td> <td>Magoffi'43.130.</td> <td>A'54.238,56.12.</td> <td>Syn. of Chat Brule.</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>Possibly same as Saintonge.</td>	P'89.	K'32.152.	Magoffi'43.130.	A'54.238,56.12.	Syn. of Chat Brule.												Possibly same as Saintonge.
Chat Brule. <td>P'89.</td> <td>K'41.125.</td> <td>Syns. Burnt Cat, Chat Brule, Cat Burnt, Chat grille, Pucelle de Saintonge, Pucelle de Haintonge (erroneously), Virgin of Haintonge (erroneously).</td> <td>P'82.</td> <td>Syn. of Saintonge</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>Too small for profit but fine in quality.</td>	P'89.	K'41.125.	Syns. Burnt Cat, Chat Brule, Cat Burnt, Chat grille, Pucelle de Saintonge, Pucelle de Haintonge (erroneously), Virgin of Haintonge (erroneously).	P'82.	Syn. of Saintonge												Too small for profit but fine in quality.
Chat Brule. <td>P'82.</td> <td>Syn. of Saintonge</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>Originated at Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1893. In experimental orchard at Agas- alz, B. C.</td>	P'82.	Syn. of Saintonge															Originated at Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1893. In experimental orchard at Agas- alz, B. C.
Chatenay. <td>L.</td> <td>Syn. Beurre Chataenay</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>In Field's undescribed list. Named for the village of Chau- montel, France.</td>	L.	Syn. Beurre Chataenay															In Field's undescribed list. Named for the village of Chau- montel, France.
Chat Grille. <td>P'89.</td> <td>Magoffi'51.295.</td> <td>Cult'50.45.</td> <td>Syn. of Chat Brule.</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>Seedling of Swan Egg raised by J. Williams, of Pitmeaton, Eng- land.</td>	P'89.	Magoffi'51.295.	Cult'50.45.	Syn. of Chat Brule.													Seedling of Swan Egg raised by J. Williams, of Pitmeaton, Eng- land.
Chattanoga. <td>R.</td> <td>Syns. Beurre Chaundy, Madame Chaundy</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>Probably identical with Stone. See WHRIV, p. 204.</td>	R.	Syns. Beurre Chaundy, Madame Chaundy															Probably identical with Stone. See WHRIV, p. 204.
Chauly. <td>P'82.</td> <td>K'32.138.</td> <td>D'60.815.</td> <td>Syn. of Meesire</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>Not described. Do.</td>	P'82.	K'32.138.	D'60.815.	Syn. of Meesire													Not described. Do.
Chamaulaine. <td>F'79.</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>Originated at Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1893. Not described.</td>	F'79.																Originated at Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1893. Not described.
Chamaulaine. <td>F'79.</td> <td>P'84.</td> <td>K'32.143, 41.123.</td> <td>Gen F'33.196, 37.278.</td> <td>D'45.433.</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>Originated at Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1893. Not described.</td>	F'79.	P'84.	K'32.143, 41.123.	Gen F'33.196, 37.278.	D'45.433.												Originated at Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1893. Not described.
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Chamaulaine. <td>F'79.</td> <td>P'84.</td> <td>K'32.143, 41.123.</td> <td>Gen F'33.196, 37.278.</td> <td>D'45.433.</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>Originated at Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1893. Not described.</td>	F'79.	P'84.	K'32.143, 41.123.	Gen F'33.196, 37.278.	D'45.433.												Originated at Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1893. Not described.
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Chamaulaine. <td>F</td>	F																

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31006—Bul. 126—08—6

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.		Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Clapp No. 25.	A 75, 46									Has a fine appearance.
Clapp No. 36.	A 75, 46									Beautiful.
Clapp No. 50.	A 75, 46									Exhibited by Meers. Clapp at Amer. Pom. Socy., 1876.
Clapp No. 56.	MassH 70, 31									Large, fine quality, and promising.
Clapp No. 64.	MassH 117, 118, 76, 92, 78, 172, 79, 159, 160, A 75, 66, 119, 79, 96, 81, 96.									Supposed to be from seed of Anjou.
FAO 86, 22.	H 12, 114.									Reenlike Bartlett and is of great promise.
Clapp No. 86.	MassH 73, 118.									From Rural New Yorker; represented as very promising.
Clapp s No. 72.	Hort 72, 216.									Reenlike Bartlett and is highly commended.
Clapp s No. 73.	Hort 72, 216.									In shape, form, and color like Bartlett.
Clapp No. 75.	MassH 73, 98, 74, 153, 75, 119, 77, 80									Attractive in appearance.
Clapp No. 107.	A 75, 66, 119. MassH 81, 232									Beautiful.
Clapp No. 111.	A 75, 46									An October variety of fair promise.
Clapp No. 117.	A 75, 46									From seed of Urbaniste; quality fine.
Clapp No. 126.	MassH 74, 153, 75, 118.									Of the Bartlett type, but not promising.
Clapp No. 127.	MassH 75, 119, 77, 80									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Clapp No. 137.	MassH 73, 97									Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.
Clapp's Seedling.	EFABC'00.		ovp	m	yr	mj	sa	g-p	m	President Clark, probably identical.
Clara.	Magoh 42, 58, 50, 286.									
F 54, 392, 50, 419.	H 143. F 279.	Belg								
Clark.	Magoh 53, 518, 53, 126									
Clarke.	A 58, 58.									
Claude Blanchet.	EFABC'00. Syn. of Blanchet.									
Clavier.	R. Syn. Martin Clavier.									
Clay.	MassH 42, 54. Magoh 45, 437, 49, 43.	Conn	robip	m	yb	cogj	s	g	m	In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Clemence.	D 60, 722. Syn. Clementine.	Belg	obop	m	yr	gjm	s	vg	me	Raised by Gov. Edwards at New Haven, Conn.
Clement Bivort.	D 60, 722. Syn. of Bivort (Clem.).									Originated by Dr. John Van Mons in 1833.
Clement Doyenne.	D 57, 421, 66, 666.									
Clementine.	D 60, 722. Syn. of Clemence.									
Clinton.	Magoh 42, 60, 51, 283.	Belg								
F 54, 392, 69, 419.	H 143. F 279.									
	T 75, 542, 85, 557, 97, 698.									Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.		Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Clapp No. 25.	A 75, 46									Has a fine appearance.
Clapp No. 36.	A 75, 46									Beautiful.
Clapp No. 50.	A 75, 46									Exhibited by Messrs. Clapp at Amer. Pom. Socy., 1876.
Clapp No. 56.	MassH 70, 31									Large, fine quality, and promising.
Clapp No. 64.	MassH 72, 117, 118, 76, 92, 78, 172, 79, 159, 160, A 75, 66, 119, 79, 96, 81, 96, F&O 86, 22, H A 81, 14, W N H 87, 149. Syn. of Clapp Beauty.									Supposed to be from seed of Anjou.
Clapp No. 66.	MassH 73, 118.									Resembles Bartlett and is of great promise.
Clapp No. 72.	Hort 72, 216.									Resembles Winter Nells and is highly commended.
Clapp's No. 73.	Hort 72, 216.									In size, form, and color like Bartlett.
Clapp No. 75.	MassH 73, 98, 74, 153, 75, 119, 77, 80									Attractive in appearance.
Clapp No. 107.	A 75, 66, 119. MassH 81, 232									Beautiful.
Clapp No. 111.	A 75, 46									An October variety of fair promise.
Clapp No. 117.	A 75, 46									From seed of Urbaniste; quality fine.
Clapp No. 125.	MassH 74, 153, 75, 118. A 75, 66, 119									Of the Bartlett type, but not promising.
Clapp No. 127.	MassH 75, 119, 77, 80									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Clapp No. 137.	MassH 73, 97									Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.
Clapp's Seedling.	E F A B C 00.									President Clark, probably identical.
Clara.	MagofH 42, 58, 50, 236. D 45, 375, 75, 599, 96, 720. Hort 40, 457. A 54, 238. F 54, 392, 59, 419, H 143. F 779. T 75, 542, 85, 557, 97, 698. Syn. Claire.	Belg...	ovp	m	yr	mj	sa	g-p	m	
Clark.	MagofH 53, 518, 58, 126									
Clarke.	A 58, 58. D 99, 719. Syn. of Church.									
Claude Blanchet.	E F A B C 00. Syn. of Blanchet.									
Clavier.	R. Syn. Martin Clavier.									
Clay.	MassH 45, 3. MagofH 46, 437, 49, 43. D 57, 481, 96, 721. F 772. T 75, 542, 85, 557, 97, 698. Syn. Sponge.	Conn...	robip	m	yb	cogj	s	g	m	
Clemence.	D 99, 722. Syn. Clementine.	Belg...	obop	m	yr	gjm	s	vg	me	
Clement Bivort.	D 99, 722. Syn. of Bivort (Clem.).									
Clement Doyenne.	D 57, 421, 96, 686. F 776. Syn. of Bartlett.									
Clementine.	D 99, 722. Syn. of Clemence.									
Clinton.	MagofH 42, 60, 51, 283. D 45, 376, 97, 699, 96, 722. A P C 50, 11. A 54, 238. E 54, 392, 59, 419, H 143. F 779. T 75, 542, 85, 557, 97, 698. Syn. Van Mons No. 1238.	Belg...		m	y	db		p	m	Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.

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Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.		Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Columbian Virgolicen</i> . D'45,430, '57,482, '69, 725. Cult' 46, 55. E'54,319, '50,373. Hof. A'62,86. T'97,598. Syn. of <i>Columbia</i> .										
<i>Columbia Virgolicen</i> . MagoffH'43,232. D'45,430, '57,482, '69, 725. HofII,17. E'54,319, '50,373. Hof. T'85,306. Syn. of <i>Columbia</i> .										
<i>Columbus</i> . R. Syn. <i>Columbus d'Elvet</i> .										Not described. Discarded by Congress of Fruit Growers in 1854.
<i>Columbus d'Hiér</i> . A'54,238. Syn. of <i>Columbus</i> .										
<i>Combrone</i> . L. Syn. <i>Glory of Combrone</i> .		For.	oblp	ml	ybru	gbmj	s	vg-b	me	
<i>Comel</i> . GarM'83, 144. A'85, 108. OH'85,175, '87,164. 11UH'86,180. MoH'87,96, '92, 40. HAJ'88,18. B1227. GaH'92,42. Wof'335,11,238. T'97,707. EFABC'00. IndH'03,200. Syn. of <i>Lawson</i> .										
<i>Comice</i> . S91. MichH'86,420. NYC'90. E&B'94. T'97,458. Bull's. AHM'239. Syns. <i>Beurre Robert</i> , <i>Doyenne de Comice</i> , <i>Doyenne du Comice</i> , <i>Doyenne du Comice (of Angers)</i> .		Fr.	robt	l	gyru	dmbj	sp	vg-b	ml	Of comparatively recent introduction.
<i>Comice de Toulon</i> . D'57,537. Syn. of <i>Pound</i> .										
<i>Comice de Toulon</i> . F220,283. D'66,875. T'97,698. Syn. of <i>Vicar</i> .										
<i>Comice (Fondante)</i> . L. Syns. <i>Fondante du Comice</i> , <i>Fondante du Comice Angers</i> .		Fr.	ovp	l	yr	jb	sv	g-vg	ml	Originated at Angers, France, about 1840.
<i>Comice panache</i> . R. Syn. <i>Doyenne du Comice panache</i> .										In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Comice Sweet</i> . L. Syn. <i>Sucre du Comice</i> .		Fr.		m	ygru	d	s		m	Described by Horticultural Society of Angers.
<i>Commisairé Delmotte</i> . MagoffH'57,155,220, '60,10. D'60,736. Syn. of <i>Delmotte</i> .										Probably originated by Dr. John Van Mons.
<i>Commodore</i> . MagoffH'42,60. D'54,472, '57,570. B'31,315. E'54,333, '36,420. F279. T'75,543, '85,558, '97,598. Syn. <i>Van Mons No. 1218</i> .		Belg	obo	m	yr	cojm	s	g	m	In Benjamin Buckman's trial orchard, Farmingdale, Ill.
<i>Commodore</i> . H144. D'60,723. T'85,558. Syn. of <i>Colmar</i> .										
<i>Commodore Perry</i> . BBL.										
<i>Common Bergamot</i> P71. K'32,133. GenF'33,106, '37,277. D'45,366, '57,565, '69,663. Syn. of <i>Bergamot (Aut.)</i> .										
<i>Common Doyenne</i> . F224. Syn. of <i>White Doyenne</i> .										
<i>Common Doyenne</i> . D'69,815. Syn. of <i>Messire</i> .										
<i>Comptessie d'Ostende</i> . D'69,858. Syn. of <i>Spanish</i> .										
<i>Comptessie</i> . E'99,420. A'75,68. Dapl'53. Syn. of <i>Ananas</i> .										
<i>Comptessie de Fresnel</i> . MagoffH'50,295. Cult'50,45. Syn. of <i>Fresnel</i> .										
<i>Comptessie</i> . MassH'44,59. D'45,371, '57,570, '69,736. Hof'47,174. E'54,393. H144. Fl.		Fl.	obtp	s	yg	b	sp	p	m	Said to be of little value.
<i>Comptessie de Flandre</i> . AHORTA'68,79. Syn. of <i>Flandre</i> .										
<i>Comptessie de Lamy</i> . D'45,371. E'54,360, '50,373. F278. Syn. of <i>Lamy</i> .										
<i>Comptessie de Michaux</i> . D'45,368, '57,578. E'54,367, '50,423. Syn. of <i>Michaux</i> .										Not described; possibly the same as Paris.
<i>Comptessie de Paris</i> . MassH'51,159.										
<i>Comptessie Clara Frye</i> . FGAO'60,372. Syn. of <i>Frye</i> .										
<i>Comptessie de Lunay</i> . D'69,701. T'85,555. Syn. of <i>Montigny</i> .										

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.		Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Craonnaise. R. Syn. Belle Craonnaise										
<i>Crapaud.</i> F276. D'69,670. Syn. of Bufo.										
<i>Crapaudine.</i> Fr34. Syn. of Grise-Bonne.										
<i>Crausane.</i> GarCal187. Pr75. Syn. of Crausane.										
<i>Crausanne Bergamot.</i> WFr5. Syn. of Crausanne.										
<i>Crausanne.</i> Cl14. Th180. GenF33,196. D'45,375, 57,571, 69,729. A'54,238. E'54,383, 99,420. H146. F279. T'75,543, 85,558, 97,699. Syns. Bergamot, Crausane, Beurre Plat, Beurre Flat or Flat Butier pear, Crausane, Crausane d'Autonne, Crausane Bergamot, Crausanne, Crausanne Bergamot, Crausanne Bergamot Crausane, Flat Butier.		Eur....	rob	ml	ygr	cojm	s	g	m	Very old; cultivated as early as 1667.
<i>Crausane Alkorric.</i> F279. Syn. of Althorpe.										
<i>Crausane (Bergamot).</i> L. Syn. Form. de Bergamotte Crausane.		Belg....	oblovp	m	yrru	j	s	g	vi	A Van Mons seedling.
<i>Crausane (Bergamot) (erroneously).</i> Tal174,46, 76,269, 77,387, 78,264, 79,474, 80,66,597.										
<i>Crausane Brava Motte.</i> F'278. D'69,676. Syn. of Bruneau.										
<i>Crausane d'Autonne.</i> D'69,790. Syn. of Jaminiotte.										
<i>Crausane d'Autonne.</i> D'69,729. CanExFr'01,546. Syn. of Crausane.										
<i>Crausane d'Ete.</i> D'69,893. Syn. of Crausane (Sum.)										
<i>Crausane d'Ete.</i> D'69,841. Syn. of Red Bergamot.										
<i>Crausane d'Hiver.</i> MagolH'48,210. D'57,484, 69,575. F279. T'75,543, 85,558, 97,699. Syn. of Bruneau.										
<i>Crausane d'Hiver de Bruneau.</i> D'69,576. Syn. of Bruneau.										
<i>Crausane (Sum.).</i> L. Syns. Crausane d'Ete, Summer Crausane.			rob	s	ybru	mj	sp		me	Described by Hogg.
<i>Crausanne.</i> Pr75. K'32,135, 41,122. Cult'39,96. F276. Syn. of Crausane.										
<i>Crausanne Bergamot.</i> Pr75. IaH'74,46, 80,966. IndH'98,100. Syn. of Crausane.										
<i>Crausanne Bergamot.</i> SW. IndH'98,101. Syn. of Crausane.										
<i>Crausanne Panachee.</i> K'41,127. Syns. Crausanne Panachee, Variegated Crausanne.										An ornamental variety.
<i>Crawford.</i> M'38,98, 44,53. D'45,335, 57,571, 69,729. E'54,383, 99,420. A'54,238. H145, F279. T'75,543, 85,558, 97,699. Syns. Bancreif, Laumas (of the Scotch).		Scot....	obo	m	yb	b	s	g	me	Its chief merit seems to be its hardiness.
<i>Cremesine.</i> Pr19. Syn. of Crimson.										
<i>Cremesine d'Aout.</i> Pr19. Syn. of Crimson.										
<i>Crausane.</i> Pr75. GenF'33,196. D'45,375, 57,571, 69,729. E'54,383, 99,420. F279. Syn. of Crausane.										Probably now obsolete.
<i>Crimsoa.</i> Pr19. L. Syns. Cremesine, Cremesine d'Aout, Grosse Cremesine, Large Crimson.		Fr....			wgb	cr	vs		me	
<i>Cricco.</i> AgR'93,288. T'97,699. JVL'96, '00 '02		N. C.		s				vg	m	A seedling of Seckel. Origin, Richmond County, N. C.
<i>Crispala.</i> L. Syn. Saint Crispin.....		Mass....	oblp	l	gyrru	comf	sa		m	A seedling raised by Israel But- tun, of Lynn, Mass.

<i>Crotaline</i> . P 79. D 60, 600. Syn. of Angelique. Crocker. Y B 00, 97. Syn. Crocker Bartlett.	Cal									Bartlett seedling. Origin, Loomis, Cal.; first named Crocker Bartlett.
<i>Crocker Bartlett</i> . Circular of L. L. Crocker, Cal '94. Y B 05, 498. Syn. of Crocker. Crocker. L. Syn. Croft Castle. <i>Croft Castle</i> . K 41, 141. MagoffH 42, 60, 154, 70, 295. D 45, 372, 57, 571, 60, 720. Cult- '90, 45. A 92, 113, 54, 238. E 54, 303, 50, 420. H 145. F 770. T 75, 543, 85, 558, 97, 699. Syn. of Croft. Crown. K 41, 188. MagoffH 41, 132, 54, 138. D 45, 432, 57, 461, 60, 730. Coal 71. E 54, 300, 50, 375. H 145. F 772. T 75, 294, 85, 312, 97, 485. Crothers. KanH 82, 184.	Eng.	m	gy	jer	s	s-p	m			
Cross. K 41, 188. MagoffH 41, 132, 54, 138. D 45, 432, 57, 461, 60, 730. Coal 71. E 54, 300, 50, 375. H 145. F 772. T 75, 294, 85, 312, 97, 485. Crothers. KanH 82, 184.	Mass	m	yrru	comj	s	g	l			Originated by Mr. Cross, of Newburyport, Mass. Reported from Allen County, Kansas; not described. Exhibited in 1858. Originated in Colchester.
Crothers. KanH 82, 184.	Kans.	?					ve			
Crouch. A 62, 211.	Conn.	m		j	s	vg	e			
Crow. JSK '98, '01. Synus. Crow's Choice, Isaac Wilson.	Tex.?									
<i>Crow's Choice</i> . NYC '90. Syn. of Crow. <i>Cruslemene</i> . D 60, 884. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Win.). Cray. L. Syn. Duc Alfred de Cruy.		obtp	l	gyrub	b	p	ml			Described by Hogg as Duc Alfred de Cruy.
<i>Cucullette d'Heer</i> . D 60, 875. Syn. of Vicar. Cuernie. L. Syn. Fondante de Cuernie.	Fr.	oblp	m	gyrub	jmb	s	me			Description from Annals of Pomology.
<i>Cuillette</i> . F 280. Syn. of Jargonelle (Eng.). Cuissard. L. Syn. Madame Cuissard.	Fr.	robtp	m	gy	cojm	sav	g			Raised by M. Cuissard, of Ecully, near Lyons.
<i>Cuisse Dame d'Eze</i> . D 60, 767. Syn. of Jargonelle (Fr.). Cuissie Madame. Gen F 37, 277. Synus. Ephe d'Eze, Fondante Musque, Satin Green, Satin Vert. Cuissie Madame. SW. F 290. Syn. of Jargonelle (Eng.). Cuissie Madame. C181. Fr 154. K 41, 119. H 146. D 60, 767. Syn. of Jargonelle (Fr.). Cuissie Madame. Phil 8. K 41, 118. H 145, 47, 97, 889. Syn. of Windsor. Cuissie Madame (of the French). K 32, 133. Gen F 37, 277. Syn. of Windsor. Cully. R. Syn. Belle E. Cully.										Uncertain as to identity; may be distinct.
<i>Cuillotte de Suisse</i> . C192. F 57. K 32, 140, 41, 128. F 283. D 60, 804. Syn. of Long Green (Pan.). Cumberland. K 32, 168, 41, 141. M 78, 83, 44, 71. MagoffH 43, 388. MassH 44, 59. D 45, 375, 57, 571, 60, 720. F 54, 303, 50, 420. H 146. F 772. T 75, 544, 85, 558, 97, 699. Cumberland. MagoffH 40, 498. Syn. of Honked. Cumberland (of Belgium). D 60, 781. Syn. of Henkel. Cure. F 230, 283. Syn. of Vicar. Cure Carnoy. FG A 07, 83, 72.	R. I.	obop	l	yr	bj	g	m			A native of Cumberland, R. I.
<i>Cure Delmotte</i> . MagoffH 57, 259. Cure d'Eleghem. F 79. Syn. of Eleghem. Curette. D 60, 875. Syn. of Vicar. Curran. A 75, 97.	For.									Said to be very hardy; being tested in Colorado. Not described.
Curran. Dapl 52. Syn. of Maria.	N. S.									Native of Nova Scotia and promising there.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Cushing. Fr144. K 32,108 '41,141. MagofH 37,15, '43,370, '50,72. MassH 37,42. Gen-F 38,55. M 38,71, '44,56, '47,55. Cult 43,87. D 45,373, '57,485, '68,730. Cole159. B 51, 304. W 69. F 54,300, '59,375. Agr 56,346. H146. F271. T 75,273, '85,291, '97,464. Syn. Hanners.	Massa...	obo	m	gyr	gfm	sp	g	m	Originated at Hingham, Mass., with Colonel Cushing.
Cushman. MassH '66 45.	Massa...								Originated at Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1865.
Cuveller. Hort 46,457. MagofH 50,286. Cult 50,45. WHR11,77. E 54,393, '59,420.	Eur...	ovp	m	y				m	In experimental orchard, Agassiz, R. C., as Dalices Cuveller.
Cuveller. MassH 47,168. A 54,238	Can...	p	l	y	cof	s		l	Exhibited by Robert Manning, September, 1847.
Cyclops. CanH '83,63									Originated by Charles Scott, at Elora, Ontario.
Cyprus Pear. Pr20. D 45,343, '57,581, '69,846. E 54,394, '59,421. F282. Syn. of Early Rousselet.	Rus...								Introduced into the United States in 1879.
Cyrrenova. Gb. Syn. of Polish Lemon									A Japanese variety; fit only for the kitchen.
Czar. Gb. Syn. Tsarskaya.									Raised by Governor Edwards at New Haven, Conn.
Dagoberi. D 69,661. Syn. of Angobert.	Rus...			yr					Resembles Beesemianka.
Dagoberi. Pr111. F280. Syn. of Glogli.									Not described.
Daimio. GaH 33,54. FJB 64. BBL.									Probably same as Daimyo.
Daimyo. GaH 96,50. B123,244. HAJ 98,74. WNYH 88,129. GHM 68,90. Mich-B31. CanEx F 04,479. AmAg 06,469. Syna. Daimio, Japanese.	Conn...	ovp	lm	yb	bj	sp	vg	m	In W. N. White's list of fine varieties for the South.
Dalozet. A 62,66. F 68,608. Syn. of Albrecht.									
Dallas. MassH 43,5. MagofH 37,232, '41,141, '47,249, '49,43. A 54,44,155. WHR1V, 270. Ag 54,373, '57,485, '68,730, '75. D 57,485, '68,730. H146. F271. AJOH VIII, 273,445. Pr273,73, '85,291, '97,464.									
Dane. FGAG O 91,14. Syn. Grappa. Mitepin									
Dane Head. D 69,657. Syn. of Amadotte.									
Dane Verté. F279.									
Danilo. GaH 85,47, '49,30,23, '92,40. LaB22									
Damon. R. Syn. Belle Epine Damon.									
Dand's Admirable. D 69,655. Syn. of Admirable.									
Dand's America. FGAG O 71,30. [Possibly Dana's No. 19.]									
Dana's Excelsior. D 67,784. Syn. of Excelsior.									
Dana's Hovey. Buld. Syn. of Dana's Hovey									
Danas Hovey. FGAG O 69,44. MichH 59,268,260. Buld. MichB27. AHM240.	Massa...	obtp	s	gyru	fm	sp	vg-b	l	Introduced in 1854. The best of the Dana seedlings.
Danas Hovey. Dana's Hovey, Dana's No 16, Dana's Seedling, Hovey, Syna. Dana's, Winter Seckel.									
Dana's Hovey. MassH 66,46,70, '66,46, '92,26, '01,96,05,32. Agr 66,134. AHortA 68,80.									
D'69,730. IndH 71,36. MichH 74,29,264. T 75,292,85,310, '97,483. B 93,376. OH-'87,94. Wnl,327,11,337,111,259. Syn. of Dana's Hovey.									

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Dean's Summer</i> . E'54,321. H147. Syn. of Summer Doyenne.									
<i>D'Andorre</i> . K'41,148. Syn. of L. d'Orléans.	Belg.								Named by Dr. John Van Mons for Genl. Dearborn. Rejected by Congress of Fruit Growers.
<i>Dearborn</i> . K'32,169. E'54,394,59,420. Syn. Dearborn (of Van Mons).									
<i>Dearborn</i> . Agr'54,267. S82. Syn. of Dearborn Seedling.									
<i>Dearborn</i> (of Van Mons). MagOH'50,295. Cult'50,45. A'54,238. Syn. of Dearborn.	Mass.	rp	ms	y	jm	s	vg	me	Originated in 1818 by Gen. Dearborn, of Roxbury, Mass.
<i>Dearborn Seedling</i> . R. Syns. Dearborn, Dearborn's Seedling, Done's, Nones, Wheeler's, New St. Michael.									
<i>Dearborn's Seedling</i> . K'32,154'41,132. Gen'F'37,277. M'38,68'44,53'47,59. D'45,336'57,431. W'732. G83. Agr'50,94'54,337'62,182. MassH'48,97. W699. A'52,20'62,66. Hov'1,63. E'54,230,59,336. T'75,255'55,273'97,454. Wn'1,325,11,335,111,258. Syn. of Dearborn Seedling.									
<i>Dearborn's Sugar</i> . MdH'96,36. [Probably Intended for Dearborn Seedling].									
<i>D'Arenberg</i> . K'41,161. Syn. of Glout Moreau.									
<i>D'Arenberg Purfait</i> . D'45,423'57,402'69,680. Hov'1,1. E'54,314'59,326. F'277.									
<i>D'Auch</i> . R64. K'32,143. Syn. of Auch.									
<i>D'Auch</i> . Gen'F'33,196. D'54,434. E'54,393'59,420. Syn. of Colmar.									
<i>D'Austrasie</i> . D'54,438'57,413'69,790. E'54,372'59,392. F'281. Syn. of Jamblinette.									
<i>D'Avril</i> . D'69,694. Syn. of Avril.									
<i>De Bayay</i> . B'51,315. MassH'53,18. C'Gen'111,11.			l		m		vg	me	Exhibited as a new variety in 1888.
<i>De Bayay</i> . MagOH'53,542'55,185. Hort'54,85. Agr'56,356. D'57,496'69,752. F'279. E'79,376. T'75,544'85,559'97,699. Syn. of Bayay.									
<i>De Bell Argentine</i> . D'69,716. Syn. of Catillac.									
<i>De Bon Crastementen</i> . D'69,884. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Win.)									
<i>De Bordenaux</i> . Gen'F'33,197. D'69,700. Syn. of Heri.									
<i>De Bouchet</i> . A'75,68. Dapl'55. Syn. of Ananas.									
<i>De Brower</i> . L. Syn. Charlotte De Brower.	Belg.	robop	sml	gyu	jm	v	g	m	Raised by Maj. Esperen.
<i>De Bur</i> . Fr'112. Syn. of Du Bur.									
<i>De Cadet</i> . D'69,670. Syn. of Cadet.									
<i>De Cadillac</i> . D'69,863. Syn. of Rose (Sum.)									
<i>De Cadillac</i> . D'69,863. Syn. of Rose (Sum.)									
<i>Decaln</i> . R. Syn. Decaln d'Hiver.									
<i>Decaln d'Hiver</i> . MagOH'43,131. Syn. of Decaln.									
<i>De Cambroa</i> . K'41,130.									Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1845, p. 131.
<i>De Candolle</i> . MagOH'43,131. Syn. Candolle.									Published as an outcast by Kenrick, 1841, p. 130.
<i>Decaye</i> . R. Syn. Vice President Decaye.									In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>De Champagne d'Etz</i> . D'69,717. Syn. of Summer Certeau.									

[illegible]

Originated by A. Delannoy at
Tournai.

[illegible]

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
De Navet. BBL.									
<i>Dentils.</i> L. Syn. Atele de St. Denis, Saint Denis.									
<i>De Yonne.</i> D'69,681. Syn. of Brignals.									
<i>Dentick.</i> Agr 53,279. Syn. of Brignals.									
<i>De Guf.</i> Magot H 43,131. Syn. of Enif.		t	s	y b	bco	sp		me	Being tested by Benjamin Buckman, Farmingdale, Ill.; not described.
<i>De Pape.</i> F282. Syn. of Saint Pere.									Origin unknown.
<i>De Perigord.</i> D'69,830. Syn. of Payenne.									Not described.
<i>De Preire.</i> Magot H 43,131. Syn. of Preire.									
<i>De Pucelle.</i> D'69,700. Syn. of Jalousey (Belg.)									
<i>De Quesson.</i> D'69,700. Syn. of Caisouy.									
<i>De Rachinequin.</i> E'22,170, 41,143. Syn. of Rachinequin.									
<i>De Racheit.</i> F193. Syn. of Dumas.									
<i>Beroulineau.</i> L. Syn. Bourre Deroulineau.	Fr.	obo	s	yu	mj	s	p	m	
<i>De Sainte Catherine.</i> D'69,661. Syn. of Angobert.									
<i>De Saint Herblain.</i> F278. D'69,676. Syn. of Brunneau.									
<i>De Saint Marlin.</i> D'69,884. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Wln.)									
<i>De Saint Waast.</i> D'69,702. Syn. of Vaet.									
<i>Deschamp.</i> R. Syn. Deschamp's New Late.									Discarded by Congress of Fruit Growers, 1846.
<i>Deschamp's New Late.</i> Magot H'50,296. Cult'50,45. A'54,238. Syn. of Deschamp.									
<i>Deschamps.</i> Gen F'33,196. D'45,423, 57,462, 69,680. Hov.1. E'54,314, 56,328. F230.									
<i>271.</i> Agr 65,188. Syn. of Arambert.									
<i>Deschasseurs.</i> Magot H 57,512. D'69,735. AHort A'69,73. Syn. of Chasseurs.									
<i>Des Dames.</i> D'69,668. Syn. of Brussels.									
<i>Des Deux Soeurs.</i> F279. D'69,736. Syn. of Sisters.									
<i>Des Esparronnais.</i> F212,279. Syn. of Angoulême.									
<i>Desfontaines.</i> R. Syn. Bosc Desfontaines.									
<i>De Sicille.</i> D'69,841. Syn. of Red Bergamot.									
<i>De Sicille Musquee.</i> D'69,841. Syn. of Red Bergamot.									
<i>Desiree Cornells.</i> Hort 54,426. Magot Hort'54,460. D'57,488, 69,735. F279. E'59,375.									
<i>T'75,643.</i> 85,588, 97,699. A'69,119. HAJ 88,74. Syn. of Cornells.									
<i>Desire Van Mons.</i> D'69,735.	Belg.	obtp	ml		mj	s	g	m	A Van Mons seedling originated in 1836.
<i>Desiree Van Mons.</i> D'57,494. F282. F'59,379. Mich H'74,28. Syn. of Brabant.									Confused with Des Nones; perhaps identical.
<i>Des Nones.</i> Hort'54,238,239. NW F'56,127. A'75,154.									
<i>Des Nones.</i> Hort'52,514. WHRIII,370. E'54,361, 56,376. Syn. of Brignals.									

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Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Doctor Lindley</i> . A71.56. Dapl46. B'83.380. Syn. of Dr. Lindley.									
<i>Dr. Lucien</i> . EFABC'00. Syn. of Lucius.									
<i>Dr. Lucius</i> . OH'87.93. CanExFR'02.380. Syn. of Lucius.									
<i>Doctor Nells</i> . Hort'61.219. D'69.728. AHorta'71.72. Agr'75.381. MichH'75.89. WNYH'76.19.	Belg.	robtp	m	gyru	jm	sv	vg	me	Originated in 1847 and named for Dr. Nells.
<i>Doctor Reader</i> . D'69.739. T'75.544. S'85.559. 97.700. CanH'79.15.159. FGAoFO'82.50. B'83.398. AHM390. Syn. of Reader.									
<i>Dr. Reader</i> . Hort'69.10.72.102. AHorta'69.77. A'69.100. Agr'75.378. FGAoFO'78.48. CanH'81.02. Nal'535.11.342. Syn. of Reader.									
<i>Doctor Turner</i> . A'62.210. D'69.740. AloHVIH'11.171. Syn. of Turner.									
<i>Dr. Cade's Warden</i> . E'54.334. D'69.835. Syn. of Pound.									
<i>Dolgokrovskaya Morosonkayna</i> . Gb. Syn. of Long Stem.									
<i>Dolphin</i> . K'32.137. Syn. of Lamsac.									
<i>Domelle</i> . E'79.350. Syn. of Domville.									
<i>Domville</i> . K'31.125. Syn. of Domville.									
<i>Donville</i> . E'79.350. Syn. of Domville.									
<i>Donville</i> . K'31.125. Syn. of Domville.									
<i>Dorchester</i> . R. Syns. Clapp's No. 4. Dorchester Beauty.	Mass.	obl	yr	b	a			vi	Described by Duhamel and Rorier. Raised by Theodore Clapp, shortly after meeting of Massachusetts Horticultural Society, 1860.
<i>Dorchester Beauty</i> . MassH'00.50. A'60.122. Syn. of Dorchester.									
<i>Dorchester Seeding</i> . MagoH'58.240. Syn. of Sheppard.									
<i>Dorothee</i> . L. Syn. Dorothee Royale Nouvelle.		p	m	yr	dmj	v		m	Description from Hogg.
<i>Dorothee Royale</i> . K'32.189. 41.156. GenF'33.196. 37.278. D'45.360. 57.424. 69.686. Hort'1.77. E'54.313. 59.327. F210. Agr'90.181. Syn. of Diel.									
<i>Dorothee Royale Nouvelle</i> . D'69.740. Syn. of Dorothee.	N. H.	obtp	l	yr	cod	s		me	Fruit very handsome; tree hardy and vigorous.
<i>Dorr</i> . Cole154. E'54.394. 50.421. F273.									
<i>Dorr</i> . Hort'52.452. Syn. of Jargonelle (Fr.)									
<i>Dorset</i> . IIIH'96.178. FESoFO'86.122. WNYH'00.118. SBros. E&B'02. Syn. of Dorsett.									Cultivated by Ellwanger & Barry.
<i>Dorset</i> . IIIH'96.209. 70.220. Syn. of Dorset.									
<i>Dorson</i> . Hort'66.334. Syn. of Dorson.									
<i>Dorsoria</i> . Hort'67.17.88. AHorta'68.80. D'69.740. A'69.100. 73.61. Syns. American Beauty. Dorson.		tp	m	yb	b	s	g	me	Introduced by Isaac Coles, Glen Cove, Long Island, N. Y.
<i>Double</i> . R. Syns. Double Autumnal, Double d'Automne.		r	m		j	p	g	m	An old variety described by Lindley.
<i>Double Autumnal</i> . Pri95. Syn. of Double.									
<i>Double Beurre</i> . Gb. CanExFR'96.136. EFABC'00. Syns. Maslitichdvolnaya, Maslitichnaya, dvolnaya.	Rus.?								Introduced from Russia by Charles Gibb in 1879.
<i>Double Calice</i> . P226. Syn. of Two Headed.									
<i>Double d'Automne</i> . Pri95. K'32.171. MagoH'43.131. Syn. of Double.									

	Fr.	m	a	e	
Double Emplod. Mass II '46, 151.					
Double Eye. L. Syns. Double Eyed Pear. Poire à deux yeux. <i>Double Eyed Pear.</i> F'718. Magoff H'37, 48. Syn. of Double Eye.					
Double Flower. P'107. K'32, 132, 41, 125, 128. Syn. of Double Flower.					
Double Fleur (Panache). K'4, 112. Syn. Double Flowering with Striped Fruit.					
Double Flower. R. Syns. Armenian, Armerie, Double Fleur, Double Flowering. The Double Flower. P'12. P'107. Syn. of Double Flower.					
Double Flowering with Striped Fruit. P'108. Syn. of Double Fleur (panache).					
Double Headed. K'32, 133, 41, 118. Syn. of Deux Têtes.					
Double Headed. P'29. Syn. of Two Headed.					
Double Monstrette. D'69, 61. Syn. of Angobert.					
Double Philippi. Magoff H'43, 125. Syn. of Boulestock.					
Double Philippi. Gen F'733, 196. Syn. of Diel.					
Double Philippi. Magoff H'55, 188. D'57, 433, 69, 742. F'200, 279. E'59, 334. Agr'62, 182. T'75, 544, '85, 559, '97, 700. Syn. of Bonassock.					
Double Philippi. D'69, 656. T'75, 544, '85, 559, '97, 700. EFABC'00. Syn. Alexandrine Doulillard. F'779. D'69, 656. T'75, 544, '85, 559, '97, 700.	Balg	l yru	jm v	vg m	
Dow. D'57, 400, '69, 741. F'273. A'58, 92. E'59, 377. T'75, 544, '85, 559, '97, 700.	Conn.	o bop ml	ygru bjm va g	m	
Dowler. R. Syn. Dowler's Seedling.					
Dowler's Seedling. Magoff H'38, 192, '43, 125. Syn. of Dowler.					
Doulin. Hort'56, 35. D'57, 554, 69, 872. E'59, 412. T'75, 545, '85, 559, '97, 700. Syn. of Urchian.					
Downham Seedling. Gen F'33, 197. D'45, 385, '57, 505, '66, 777. E'54, 370, '59, 386. Syn. of Hacon.					
Dowling. NYC'90. T'97, 469. Syn. Doyenne Downling.	Fr.	obt p m gyru dbjm svp	g-vg	m	
Downton. Gen F'33, 196. (ult.'39, 66. K'41, 160. Mass H'44, 60. Magoff H'50, 296. A'54, 238. E'54, 394, '59, 420. HMHS'29.	Eng.	p m yb		l	
Doyen Dillen. Mass H'33, 18. D'57, 490, 69, 741. Syns. Deacon Dillen, Doctor Dillen, Doyenne Dillen.	Balg.	obl p lm yru jb s	vg	m	
Doyen Dillon. Magoff H'32, 402. F'779. Hort'64, 181. EFABC'00. Syn. of Dillen.					
Doyenne. Th'192. P'43. K'32, 132, '41, 121. D'45, 378, '57, 436, '60, 880. E'54, 322, '59, 336. FESoO'04, 51. Syn. of White Doyenne.					
Doyenne Anna Anderson. D'69, 661. Syn. of Andissan.					
Doyenne Barry. D'69, 665. Syn. of Barry.					
Doyenne Beurre. IIIH'68, 311. [Identity uncertain].					
Doyenne Blanc. Gen F'33, 196. Cult'44, 36. K'41, 121. D'45, 378, '57, 436, '60, 880. How- 11, 85. A'52, 93. E'54, 322, '59, 336. Agr'62, 242, 62, 183. F'224, 279. T'75, 545, '85, 559. Syn. of White Doyenne.					
Doyenne Botsard. EFABC'00. Syn. of Bolsard.					
Doyenne Botschlot. EFABC'00. Syn. of Boisselot.					
Doyenne Bon Lock. IHH'82, 237.					

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Doyenne Boussock.</i> MagroH'47,68, '51,42, '55,187. B'51,304, '83,369. Hovl.31. Wg-69. Agr'56,330, '62,182. D'57,433, '69,742. F200. MoH'64,31. IaH'71,69. Hort-72,55,126. T'75,545, '85,559. MVH'S83,129. Wn1,326,11,356. Syn. of Boussock.									
<i>Doyenne Boussock Nouvelle.</i> Hovl.31. Agr'62,182. D'69,742. T'75,546, '85,559. Syn. of Boussock.									
<i>Doyenne Boussock.</i> MagroH'47,68, '51,42, '55,187. Agr'50,95. Hovl.31. Cult'51, 210. A'54,137, '62,68. E'54,318, '59,334. F279. IHH'71,152. B'83,368. Syn. of Boussock.									
<i>Doyenne Boussock Nouvelle.</i> K'41,143. Hovl.31. E'54,318, '59,334. D'57,433. T'85,289,539. Syn. of Boussock.									
<i>Doyenne Boussock</i> (of some). D'45,380, '57,437, '69,745. Cole167. Syn. of Gray.									
<i>Doyenne Boussock</i> (of some French collections). Hovl.31. Syn. of Boussock.									
<i>Doyenne Caroline.</i> K'41,170. MagroH'42,120.									
<i>Doyenne Credit.</i> MassH'47,69. D'69,859. Syn. of Stevens.									
<i>Doyenne Cuver.</i> F279. Syn. of Gray. Doyenne.									
<i>Doyenne d'Alain.</i> E'59,378. D'69,743. Syn. of Doyenne Defais.									
<i>Doyenne d'Alencon.</i> Cult'47,240. B'51,309, '83,375. E'54,321, '59,335. Hort'56,347. Agr'56,405, '68,133. D'57,434, '69,742. H1130. F241. MagroH'57,397. IHH'69,135. T'75,292, '85,310. MVH'S83,130. Wn1,327,11,337. Syn. of Alencon.									
<i>Doyenne d'Aloume.</i> Pr46. K'32,136. GenF'33,196, '37,277. D'45,380, '57,437, '69, 745. E'54,322, '59,335. F245. Agr'64,142. Syn. of Gray. Doyenne.									
<i>Doyenne de Bruzelles</i> (erroneously). D'69,712. Syn. of Caen.									
<i>Doyenne de Cercle.</i> D'69,742. IHH'69,156. AHortA'70,77. Syn. Doyenne de Cercle Pratique du Rouen.	Fr....	rp	m	xyru	jm	v	g	m	
<i>Doyenne de Cercle de Pratique de Rouen.</i> D'69,742. Syn. of Doyenne de Cercle.									
<i>Doyenne d'Ete.</i> D'45,326, '57,434, '69,742. MagroH'47,66. B'51,300, '83,364. Hovl. 59. W'699. A'52,24, '62,68. Agr'53,279, '54,249, '56,337, '63,124. WHRN'63. F'54, 324, '59,334. Hort'53,491. GenXV'11,14. T'75,250, '85,274. Q69. S89. Wn1,325,11, 335. Syn. of Summer Doyenne.									
<i>Doyenne Defais.</i> MagroH'52,474, '53,40, '55,270, '57,158. D'57,462, '69,743. E'54,363, '59, 378. H1152. F279. T'75,273, '85,291. MHSC'76,31. PaF57,166. Syns. Defays, Doyenne d'Alain.									
<i>Doyenne d'Alain.</i> E'54,394, '59,420. Syn. of Coffin.									
<i>Doyenne d'Hiver.</i> F271. Syn. of Easter Bergamot.									
<i>Doyenne d'Hiver.</i> Pr53. K'32,199, '41,160. GenF'33,198, '37,278. D'45,425, '57,428, '59, 753. E'54,317, '59,336. Hort'54,444. F214,277. Agr'60,180. T'75,545, '85,560, '97, 700. B'83,374. Syn. of Easter d'Alain.									
<i>Doyenne d'Hiver d'Alencon.</i> D'57,434, '69,742. F279. Agr'66,133. E'59,335. T'75, 545, '85,560. B'83,375. Syn. of Alencon.									
<i>Doyenne d'Hiver de Bruzelles.</i> K'41,160. Syn. of Easter Beurre.									

Listed as a promising new variety
by Kerick.

Originated at Angers, France.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Doy. Mignier.</i> HAJ'88.74. Syn. of Meynier.									
<i>Doyenne Mons.</i> MassH'47.69. MagoffH'50.26. Cult'50.45. A'54.238									Rejected by Congress of Fruit Growers, 1849.
<i>Doyenne Mague.</i> MagoffH'48.198. NAF'40.38. E'54.355, 59.399. D'57.474, 69.701. F'78. T'75.445, 85.560. Syn. of Montigny.									
<i>Doyenne Nordman.</i> MagoffH'47.502. Syn. of Nereckman.									
<i>Doyenne Penuche.</i> P'200. K'41.108. B'51.305. E'54.323, 59.336. D'68.881. CGen-X XI 11.288. Syn. of Striped Doyenne.									
<i>Doyenne Robin.</i> K'24.179. A'188. MagoffH'50.401, 54.83. B'51.315. W'69. Hort'54.84. E'54.303, 59.378. H'151. F'279. MassH'53.18. Agr'56.367. Cult'58.184. A'62.68. CGen XI.254. D'69.746. F'75.284, 85.302. Wn1 333 II.342. Syn. of Robin.									
<i>Doyenne Robin (of Langlier).</i> D'57.600. Syn. of Robin.									
<i>Doyenne Rose.</i> B'51.310. E'54.302, 59.379. D'57.571, 69.746. H'151. F'279. IIIH'69.155. FAFS'71.62. Hort'72.120. T'75.545, 85.560.	Fr.	obop	ml	y b	co g		p	m	
<i>Doyenne Rouge.</i> GenF'33.196. D'45.380, 57.437, 69.745. E'54.322, 59.335. T'75.545, 85.560. '97.700. Syn. of Gray Doyenne.									
<i>Doyenne Rouge.</i> P'46. K'32.136, 41.122. GenF'37.277. D'45.380, 57.437, 69.745. E'54.322, 59.335. F'245. Syn. of Gray Doyenne.									
<i>Doyenne Royale.</i> MagoffH'43.131.									
<i>Doyenne Santelitte.</i> P'201. GenF'37.277. MagoffH'43.131, 48.63. Syn. of Santelitte.									
<i>Doyenne Santelitte.</i> K'32.170, 41.130. E'54.303, 59.378. H'152. D'69.746. Syn. of Santelitte.									
<i>Doyenne Scieulle.</i> WHRI'65. Syn. of Scieulle.									
<i>Doyenne Scieulle.</i> MagoffH'46.175. B'51.310. Hovi'17. E'54.303, 59.378. D'57.455, 85.560. Cult'58.51. H'151. F'240. CGen XI.28. Agr'66.190. IIIH'69.189. T'75.545, 85.560. Syn. of Scieulle.									
<i>Doyenne Soulange.</i> K'41.170. MagoffH'42.250. Syn. of Soulange.									
<i>Doyenne Sterkmans.</i> MagoffH'55.521. D'57.458, 69.698. F'277. Syn. of Sterkmans.									
<i>Doyenne Wite.</i> GenF'33.196. B'51.305, 85.360. E'54.323, 59.336. Agr'54.251, 62.183. A'62.68. D'69.860. IIIH'69.54. MVHS'83.130. Syn. of White Doyenne.									
<i>Drapiez.</i> MagoffH'43.125. Syn. Drapiez d'Ete.									
<i>Drapiez d'Ete.</i> K'41.168. MagoffH'43.125. Syn. of Drapiez.									
<i>Dreumont.</i> R. Syn. Beurre Dreumont.	For. ?								
<i>Dreische's Butterbirne.</i> AdH'61.56.									
<i>Dreische.</i> L. Syn. Beurre Van Dreische.	Belg	obtp	ml	y b	dmig	sv	vi		
<i>Dreissen.</i> R. Syn. Beurre Dreissen.									
<i>Drieert.</i> D'69.773. Syn. of Bilboa.		rob		g	bj	m	ve		
<i>Dronc.</i> P'25. Syn. Bourdon Musquee, Bourdon or Humble bee pear, Musk Drone, Musky Bourdon, Oranged d'Ete.									

Kenrick says that it is highly spoken of.

Reported as a new foreign variety. Not described. Description from Leroy. Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1865, p. 146, as Beurre Dreissen.

Perhaps obsolete.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Duchesse de Berry</i> . K'41,143. Cult'47,340. D'69,748. CanExFR'05,430. Syn. of Berry.									
<i>Duchesse de Berry</i> . MassH'51,189. F283. AJoHIV1,50. Syn. of Pound									
<i>Duchesse de Berry d'Éte</i> . D'57,480, 69,148. F279. AJoHIVIII,124. B'83,364. T'83,275. Syn. of Berry.									
<i>Duchesse de Berry d'Éte</i> (of Bivort). MagoH'54,455. D'57,484. F279. E'50,334. Agr'63,124. Syn. of Summer Doynene.									
<i>Duchesse de Berry d'Hiver</i> . Cult'47,340. F283. D'09,835. Syn. of Pound									
<i>Duchesse de Berry d'Ames</i> . D'69,748. Syn. of Berry									
<i>Duchesse de Bordeaux</i> . Hort'69,721,160,70,110. Bul'68. AHM235. II, B'03,136. Syn. of Bordeaux.									
<i>Duchesse de Bordeaux</i> . Hort'69,72. IHH'69,136,155. AJoHIV,241. D'69,748. A'Hest'70,77. OII'71,47. Syn. of Bordeaux.									
<i>Duchesse de Brabant</i> . A'62,68. T'73,545, '85,580. Syn. of Soldat									
<i>Duchesse de Brabant</i> (Capenick). MagoH'57,280. D'69,749. Syn. of Brabant									
(Duchesse Capenick).									
<i>Duchesse de Brabant</i> (Dureux). MagoH'57,280. D'57,494, 69,748. F279. Syn. of Brabant.									
<i>Duchesse de Brissac</i> . EFABC'00. Syn. of Brissac.									
<i>Duchesse d'Hiver</i> . D'69,749. N'II'78,28. OII'88,49. Syn. of Winter Duchesse.									
<i>Duchesse de Mars</i> . K'32,192, '41,169. GenF'33,196. Cult'39,66. MagoH'46,175. D'45,392, '57,572, 69,749. B'51,316. E'54,366, '56,379. II153. F'279. T'75, '545, 85,560. Syn. of Mars.									
<i>Duchesse de Mouchy</i> . AJoHIVIII,228. Dap,155. Syn. of Mouchy									
<i>Duchesse d'Orléans</i> . K'41,143. MagoH'46,147. B'51,304, '83,380. F229. OH'63,14. A'52,22. Hort'53,305. Agr'54,246, '03,125. D'57,493, 69,749.									
T'75,263, '85,281. Syn. of Orléans.									
<i>Duchesse Elsa</i> . EFABC'00. Syn. of Elsa.									
<i>Duchesse Helene d'Orléans</i> . MassH'62,32. A'62,115. D'69,749. T'75,273, '85,291. Syn. of Helene.									
<i>Duchesse Hybrid</i> . MichB31. BBL.									
<i>Duchesse d'Angoulême</i> . Pr126. K'32,171. GenF'37,277. E'54,364. Syn. of Angoulême.									
<i>Duchesse (of Berri)</i> . E'54,366. Syn. of Berri									
<i>Duchesse de Mars</i> . K'32,192. E'54,366. Syn. of Mars									
<i>Duchesse of Berry</i> . MagoH'51,438. E'54,366, '59,379. Hort'55,65. Syn. of Berri.									
<i>Duchesse of Orléans</i> . E'54,364, '59,331. Syn. of Orléans.									
<i>Duchesse Precoc</i> . Gb. FGAJO'06,33, '06,18. FESJO'06,122. CanH'02,404. D'125. B'83,369. WnI,33,II,342. E&B'94. Syn. of Early Duchesse.									
<i>Duchovaya</i> . Gb. Syn. of Scented.									

Not described.

Introduced into America in 1892.

Duchovol. FGAO'91,12	Rus.	l	y	vg	m	On trial at Ontario, Canada, agricultural stations.	
<i>Duck Monarch</i> . F282. Syn. of Ghislain.							
<i>Du Colombier</i> . D'60,841. Syn. of Red Bergamot.							
<i>Du Cyr</i> . D'60,875. Syn. of Vicaire.	Mass.	ml		vg	m	Originated with Mr. Dudley, of Boston Highlands, Mass.	
<i>Dudley</i> . Mass H'79,168. A'79,96.				vg	m	Raised by Andre Leroy and dedicated to Du Monceau.	
<i>Duhamel</i> . L. AHM241. Syn. Duhamel du Monceau.	Fr.	rp	m	bjm	sv		
<i>Dukamel du Monceau</i> . A'73,76,'81,30. T'75,560,'97,700. Dupl'46. B'83,378. W NYH-'81,118. IIIH'98,75,'90,126. Wn'1,333,11,342. CanEx*FR'88,400. AHM241. Syn. of Duhamel.							
<i>Duhaume</i> . L. T'97,700. Syn. Beurre Duhaume.	N. C.	obt ap	m l	g jmb v	g vg	Seedling of Winter Nells and Bartlett.	
<i>Duke de Nemours</i> . EFABC'00. Syn. of Nemours.						Imported in 1879; not described.	
<i>Dula</i> . Gb. IaB3. Syn. Dula Medviedevka.	Rus.					Mentioned by Professor Budd; not described.	
<i>Dula Medviedevka</i> . Gb. Syn. of Bear.							
<i>Dull Medwedowska</i> . CanEx*FR'85,391,'90,130,440. EFABC'00. Syn. of Dula.							
<i>Dumas</i> . Mass H'45,88. F193. E'56,360. T'75,293,'85,281,'97,400. Bulb. Syns. Belle Epine Dumas, Beurre d'Elberg, Beurre de Rochoir, Beurre Rochechouart, Beurre St. Louis, Colmar de Lot, Comte de Limoges, Duc de Bourdeaux, Dumas de Limoges, Dumas de Rochechouart, Dumas de Rocheport, Du Rachois, Emile de Rochoir, Epine de Limoges, Epine de Rocheport, Epine Dumas, Epine du Rochoir, Epine du Rochois.		obtp	m	gyru bml	s	vg	l
<i>Dumas</i> . K'41,159. D'46,448. Hov'1,47. E'54,344. AgR'62,189. Syn. of Vicaire.							
<i>Dumas de Limoges</i> . F193. Syn. of Dumas.							
<i>Dumas de Rochechouart</i> . F193. Syn. of Dumas.							
<i>Dumas de Rocheport</i> . F193. Syn. of Dumas.							
<i>Dumbarton</i> . A'54,238. Syn. Dumbarton.	Belg.	robtp	ml	gyru	gjm	s	g m
<i>Dumont</i> . L. Syns. Beurre Dumont, Beurre Dumont.							
<i>Du Montcalm</i> . IIIH'90,126.							
<i>Dumont Dumortier</i> . F279. MagofII'59,505. D'49,750.	Belg.	robo	l	gyru	mj	v	g m
<i>Dumortier</i> . F279. D'69,687. Syn. of Dumortier.							
<i>Dumortier</i> . MagofII'42,61,'52,150. D'45,378,'57,465. E'54,394,'59,421. T'75,273,'85,231,'97,469. Syns. Beurre Dumortier, Delices Dumortier. Dumonstier, Du Mortier.	Belg.	robop	m	gyru	jm	sv	g-vg m
<i>Du Mortier</i> . D'69,687. Syn. of Dumortier.							
<i>Dumortier</i> . D'69,687. Syn. of Dumortier.							
<i>Dunaa</i> . R. Syn. Rene Dunan.		obtp	l	gyru	coj	s	p m
<i>Dunbarton</i> . MagofII'50,296. Syn. of Dumbarton.							
<i>Dunbala</i> . R. Syn. Duncaïn d'Hiver.							
<i>Duncaïn d'Hiver</i> . MagofII'43,131. Syn. of Duncaïn.							
<i>Dundas</i> . MagofII'42,61,52,152. D'45,384,'57,469,'69,750. E'54,396,'59,390. H153.	Belg.	robop	m	gyru	jm	s	g-vg
F279. T'75,273,'85,291,'97,469. Syns. Elliott Dundas, Elliott Dundas, Felicite Dundas, Fortunee, Heloise Dundas, Parmentier, Roussetlet de Jamlin, Roussetlet Jamlin, Roussetlet Jamlin.							

Earle Bergamot. R. Syns. Earle's Bergamot, Earle's Russet.....	Mass.	obtp	m	gyru	mj	p	vg	
<i>Earle's Bergamot.</i> Mass H'81, 222. A'91, 106, '83, 93, '85, 17. Syn. of Earle Bergamot.								
<i>Earle's Russet.</i> Garm H'71, 125. Syn. of Earle Bergamot.								
<i>Earl Pear.</i> D'96, 783. Syn. of Herkimer.								
<i>Early Bell</i> (of New England). Magoh H'37, 49. Syn. of Windsor.								
<i>Early Bergamot.</i> Cult '39, 66. D'45, 332, 37, 563, '60, 751. E'54, 394, '59, 421. H'154. F								
277. Syn. of Early Bergamot (of Downing).								
<i>Early Bergamot</i> (of Downing). R. Syns. Bergamotte Precoce, Early Bergamot,	Fr.	r	m	yg	jm	s	vg	me
Early French Bergamot.								
<i>Early Bergamot.</i> Hall '77, 357, '94, 508. FG Aot'80, 3. Syn. of Early Bergamot (of								
Gibb).								
<i>Early Bergamot.</i> Preb. K'32, 135, '41, 132. Kan H'82, 135. Syn. of Early Berga-								
mot (of Prince).								
<i>Early Bergamot</i> (of Gibb). R. Syns. Bergamot rannaya, Bergamot rannul,	Rus?							me
Earl Bergamot.								
<i>Early Bergamot</i> (of Prince). R. Syns. De Huchet, Early Bergamot.....		r	m	gyr	joo	s		me
<i>Early Bergamot</i> of Wisconsin. Wis H'71, 150, '73, 24, '87, 75. Dep'55. Ia H'77, 384,								
'78, 94. Syn. of Portugal.								
<i>Early Beurre.</i> Pr'103. Gen F'33, 196. Cult '39, 66. D'45, 331, 37, 563, '60, 658. E'54,								
388, 59, 417. F'276. Syn. of Ambrosia.								
<i>Early Beurre.</i> K'32, 135, '41, 126. Magoh H'43, 366. D'45, 332, 37, 428, '60, 703. Ag R-								
'62, 182. Syn. of Bloodgood.								
<i>Early Butler.</i> SW. Ind F'40, 182. Syn. of Craig.								
<i>Early Butler</i> (of Cincinnati). E'54, 367, 59, 381. A'61, 238. D'60, 751. OH'85, 177.								
Syn. of Craig.								
<i>Early Butler</i> of Indiana. WHIRV 203. H'154. OH'85, 177. Syn. of Craig.								
<i>Early Butler</i> (of Meares). IIIH'60, 57. Syn. of Craig.								
<i>Early Catharine.</i> Cl'178. D'54, 343, 37, 581, '60, 846. Ag R'54, 283, 56, 344. E'54, 394,								
'59, 421. F'282. A'62, 68. Ind H'63, 13. Hort'71, 319. F'75, 545, '85, 560, '97, 701. Syn.								
of Early Rousselet.								
<i>Early Chaumontelle.</i> Pr'13. K'32, 126, '41, 118. Gen F'37, 277. D'60, 809. Syn. of								
Madeleine.								
<i>Early Chaumontel</i> (incorrectly). D'45, 341, 57, 441. F'281. Syn. of Madeleine.								
<i>Early Cluster.</i> A'79, 131.								
<i>Early Denzelona.</i> E'54, 394, '59, 421. D'57, 572, '60, 833. Magoh H'59, 399. Syn. of								
Pianco.								
<i>Early Duchesa.</i> MichSB27. MichB177, 194. CanEXFR'00, 431. FFABC'00. AHM-								
243. Syn. Duchesse Precoce.								
<i>Early Elliott.</i> R. Syns. Elliott, Elliot's Early, Elliott's Early, Elliott's	Fr.	obtp	ml	yr	cojm	sv	g	me
Early.								
<i>Early French Bergamot.</i> Pr'69. Syn. of Early Bergamot (of Downing).								
<i>Early German.</i> H'141. Syn. of Chancellor.	Can.	p	s	gybr	jm	sp	g-vg	e
<i>Early Green Chisel.</i> W'178.								
<i>Early Green Sugar.</i> A'87, 141. BBL.								
<i>Early Harvest.</i> IIIH'85, 180, '87, 50, '89, 139, '91, 104. HAJ'89, 26. GaH'91, 31, '97, 81.	Amer.							
NebH'90, 129, '91, 59, 189, '95, 262. BBL. AHM243.								
<i>Early Harvest.</i> FFSofO'91, 11. Syn. of Chambers.								
<i>Early Harvest</i> (of Ky.) AN&OCo. Syn. of Chambers								

Raised by J. M. Earle, of Worcester, Mass.

This and Early Bergamot of Prince may be identical.

Introduced from Russia in 1873. Possibly identical with Early Bergamot of Downing.

Not described.

Originated by C. Elliott, of Windsor, Ontario.

Probably same as Chisel. Being tested by Benjamin Buckman, Farmingdale, Ill. Early Harvest and Chambers are probably identical.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in *American publications from 1804 to 1907*—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Early Harvest of New Jersey. Mich B31									
Early Harvest of Ohio. Mich B31									
Early Katharine. SW. Syn. of Early Rousselet.									Not described; possibly distinct.
Early Madeleine. Can E. FR '98 400. EFA BC '00. Syn. of Madeleine.									Not described; possibly distinct.
Early Market. Ill H '96 194 '98 173. Syn. of Market.									
Early Napoleon. Minn H '83 68 70.									Probably not Napoleon.
Early Queen. Gen F '33 197. D '45 341 '57 578 '60 818. E '54 397 '56 423. F '281. Syn. of Muscat Robert.									
Early Rose Anglet. Gen F '33 196. Syn. of Madeleine.		ap	ms	ybr	co	sp	me		Apt to rot at core; not valuable
Early Rousselet. Pr 20. K '32 122. Ind F '40 182. D '45 343 '57 581. E '54 394 '59 421. H '54 184. F '282. A '62 68. OH '64 12. T '75 545 '85 560 '97 701. Syns. Catharine, Cyprus Pear, Early Catharine, Early Katharine, Green Catharine, Kattien, Perdreau, Poire de Chypre, Rousselet Hatif, Rousselette Hatif, Rousselet Perdreau, Turner's Early (of Illinois).									
Early Rousselet. Pr 138. Syn. of Skinless.			m		m		vg		Praised by E. W. Kirkpatrick, of Texas.
Early Russian. EWK '94.									
Early St. Germain. Hort '49 567 '56 155. E '54 358 '59 371. Hof. Syn. of Chancellor.									
Early Sugar. Pr 9. K '32 131. Ind F '40 181. E '54 366 '59 381. H '54. D '66 779 Syn. of Harvest.									
Early Sugar. D '45 330 '57 450. Syn. of Joannet.									
Early Summer. Agr '55 296. [This may be Craig].									
Early Summer Bergamot. C 179. Syn. of Summer Bergamot.									
Early Summer Butler. D '66 751. Syn. of Craig.									
Early Wilder. Mass H '43 4. Magoth '44 156. Syn. of Wilbur.									
Early Wilder. Ill H '96 45. BBL. Syn. of Wilder Early.		rp	s	y	co/b	p	g	me	Originated by A. D. Williams, of Roxbury, Mass.
Early Williams. L. Syn. Williams' Early.	Mass.								
Early York. F '273. Syn. of York.									
Easter. 892. B 1229. Bulc.8. Syn. of Easter Beurre.									
Easter Belle. AHM '243. Syn. of Eastern Belle.									
Easter Bergamot. Dom Enc 183. Gar Cal 187. C 199. Th 186. Pr 77. K '32 142 '41. 124. D '45 429 '57 564 '60 731. Cole 174. E '54 389 '59 417. H '55a. Syns. Andersons Favorite, Bergamot d'Hiver, Bergamot Easter, Bergamotte de Bugt, Bergamotte de Creme, Bergamotte d'Hiver, Bergamotte de la Grilliere, Bergamotte de Paques, Bergamotte de Pasques, Bergamotte de Toulouse, Bergamotte Ronde d'Hiver, Bergamotte Soldat Nabours, Beurre d'Hiver, Bonner's Pope's Pear, Bugt, Cape May, Boyenne d'Hiver, La Grillieu, Taddington, Robert's Keeping, Royal Tarding, St. Herblain d'Hiver, Soldat, Tarding, Tarding or Terling, Terling, Tuling, Winter Bergamot, Winter Bergamotte.									
	Fr.	robs	m	gy	crj	v	g	vl	An old French variety; good only for cooking.

Elton. Pr196. K'32,136,'41,127. Gen F'37,277. Magoffi'50,268. A'54,238. D'69,756. O'H'03,154.	Eng....	ovobo	m	gru	boj	vg	me	Originated in Herefordshire about three centuries since. Exhibited by F. F. Bernard at meeting of Ohio Horticultural Society, 1893. Variable in quality; sometimes good. A strong grower, but rambling in habit.
Emerald. K'41,161. D'45,435,'57,572,'69,756. Magoffi'52,437. E'54,394,'59,421. F'280. T'75,546,'85,561,'97,701. Syn. Epergne. Emerance. D'69,756. Syn. Emerance.	Belg....	obtp	m	yb	mcoj	g	ml	
Emerance Bivort. D'69,756. Syn. of Emerance.	Eur....	obop	l	gyru	jm	s	g	me
Emhart. BBL								In Benjamin Buckman's collection at Farmingdale, Ill. Not described.
Emigrant. CGenXIV,321.								
Emilie Bivort. E'59,382. T'75,546,'85,561,'97,701. Syn. of Emilie Bivort.								
Emilie d'Heyel. MassH'53,21,'77,79,'82,24,'96,27. Magoffi'54,96. AgR'56,331,'75,379. D'57,496,'69,757. F'59,382. F'280. A'JoffiV,327. T'75,263,'85,281,'97,460. B'83,369. E&B'94. A'HM249. Syn. of Heyst (Emile).								
Emilie de Rochois. D'69,668. Syn. of Dundas.	For.							
Emilie L. Syn. Bonne Emilie.	Belg.	robo	ms	yr	jm	sa	vg	m
Emilie Bivort. D'69,756. Syn. Emilie Bivort, Emily Bivort.	Conn.							
Emly. Magoffi'38,469.								
Emily Bivort. D'57,497,'69,756. Syn. of Emilie Bivort.								
Emmanuel. D'69,717. Syn. of Summer Certeau.								
Emmiliacour. D'69,815. Syn. of Messire.								
Emperor Alexander. R. Syn. Beurre Emperor Alexander.								
Emperor d'Autriche. K'41,169.								
Endrott. Magoffi'37,50,'39,395,'40,173,'50,296,'53,264,257. MassH'37,30. Cult'40,186. WHR'240. IndH'72,50,'75,52. MinH'70,43. CGenXII,254. A'79,80. Syn. Great Pear. Sugar Pear.								
Enfant Prodige. Magoffi'42,60. MassH'44,61. E'54,395. Hort'56,136. H'156. Syn. of Enfant Prodige.								
E of Enfant Prodige. D'45,385,'57,540,'69,846. WHR'11,162. F'280,282. E'59,421. T'73,546,'85,561,'97,701. Syn. Enfant Prodige, Nectarine, Rousselet Enfant Prodige.	Belg....	p	m	gru	lg	vp	g	m
Enfant Prodige. EFABC'00. Syn. of Vantals.								
Englem. L. Syn. Bronze d'Englem.	Belg....	ovp	m	ybru	cjm	va	g	l
Englebert Lott. A'58,196. D'69,779. Syn. of Harrison.								
English Autumn Bergamot. Pr11. D'45,396,'57,593,'69,663. E'54,389,'59,417. F'277. (Syn. of Bergamot (Aut.))								
English Bell. CGenXII,334. Syn. of Pound.								
English Bergamot. Pr11. Gen F'33,196. D'45,396,'57,593,'69,663. E'54,389,'59,417. F'277. T'75,546,'85,561,'97,701. Syn. of Bergamot (Aut.)								
English Reurre. C'02. D'45,351,'57,593,'69,661. E'54,388,'59,417. F'276. Syn. of Angletorre.								
English Cailloz Rose. Gen F'33,196. Syn. of Rose (Sum.)								
English Catharine. K'32,140,'41,127. Syn. of Red Cheek.								

[illegible]

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Eva Baltet. CanExFR'05,430.....		obp	l	gyr	j	s		m	In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Everard. R Syn. Delices Everard.....									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Everlasting. IIIH'93,76.....									Shown at World's Columbian Exposition; not described.
Ever. HMH84.....	Mass.								Originated in Massachusetts Colony at a very early date.
Excellentissima. K'41,131. MassH'45,88,72,91. MagoH'47,525. B'51,305. E'54,384,59,379. T'75,546,85,561,97,701. Syn. of Brabant.									Raised by Francis Dana, of Boston, Mass.
Excelsior. MagoH'39,471. A'67,158. CGenXXIII,190. MassH'82,38.	Mass.	obtp	m	gyru	jm		g-vg	me	In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Syns. Dana's Excelsior, Dana's Seedling No. 12, Excelsior No. 12.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Excelsior No. 12. MagoH'50,204. Syn. of Excelsior.									Raised by Dr. Thomas Andrew Knight.
Exeglovka. EFABC'00.....									Introduced from Europe in 1844.
Exeter. EFABC'00.....									Tree planted in 1850; still living in 1886.
Eyer Pear. Pr36. Syn. of Swan Egg.									May be Aramburg (Aut.)
Eyewood. K'41,144. D'45,386,57,573,69,759. MagoH'46,147,47,154. ColeH'00. B'51,316. Cult'52,36. E'54,367,59,382. III'56. F'280. T'75,546,85,561,97,701. AofH'98,151.	Eng.	obl	m	ygru	b	v	g-vg	m	Exhibited at meeting of Massachusetts Horticultural Society in 1844.
Eze. L. Syns. Belle et bonne d'Eze, Belle et Bonne des Zees, Bon d'Eze, Bonne d'Eze, Bonne de Longueval, Bonnes des Hales, Bonne des Zees, Bonne de Zees.	Fr.	oblp	l	ygru	jm	s	g-vg	m	On trial at Illinois Agricultural experiment stations.
Fall. A'75,102.....	Mass.	ov	s	gru			p	m	Description from Elliott.
Fall Beurre d'Aramberg. Dapl'75. Syn. of Aramburg (Aut.)									Rejected by Congress of Fruit Growers in 1849.
Fall Butter IndF'40,105,136,182. A'73,106. OreH'91,13,93,85,97,23,99,151,461. Syn.									
Fall White Doyenne. MassH'74,158. A'75,119.		r	m	ybru		v			
Fall d'Aramberg. MassH'74,158. A'75,119.									
Fall Sugar. MassH'44,62.									
False Specter. D'69,827. Syn. of Paradise.									
Fame. SBros. IIIH'97,213.									
Famanga. GenF'33,196. Cult'39,66. MagoH'43,398,50,296. MassH'44,59. A'54,238.	Eur.	obo	m	gy				me	
E'54,365,59,421. D'69,759.									
Fanarau. D'69,778. Syn. of Hampden.									
Fantale. R. Syn. Fantasia Van Mons.									
Fantasia Van Mons. MassH'45,90. MagoH'50,296. A'54,238. Syn. of Fantasia.									
Farm Maria Louise. F'48. Syn. of Marie Louise.									

Farmington. R. Syn. Farmington Summer.	Conn.	obl	vi	gr	mj	s	e	
<i>Farmington Summer</i> . GenF'33.38. Syn. of Farmington.								A very old tree at Farmington, Conn.
<i>Farragut</i> . MassH'66.44. Syns. Admiral. Admiral Farragut, Amiral, Colmar Charnay.	Mass.	p	vi	gr	mj	sa	me	Raised by Dr. S. A. Shurtleff, of Brookline, Mass. Published in Magazine of Horticulture in 1843, p. 131.
<i>Farrow</i> . R. Syn. Farrow Cow.								
<i>Farrow Cow</i> . MagoH'43.131. Syn. of Farrow.								
<i>Fulher's Keepsake</i> . Gb. Syn. of Keepsake.			s				vi	Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1848, p. 111.
<i>Faurite</i> . R. Syn. Poire Faurite.								
<i>Fausse Spreu</i> . MagoH'42.250. Syn. of Spreu.								
<i>Fausse Spreu</i> . K'41.170. Syn. of Spreu.								
<i>Faux Bolivar</i> . D'69.835. Syn. of Pound.								
<i>Faux Specieu</i> . D'69.827. Syn. of Paradise.								
<i>Favori Musque</i> . Dapl55. A'75.68. Syn. of Ananas.								
<i>Favori Musque</i> . D'69.660. Dapl55. Syn. of Ananas d'Ete.								
<i>Favori Musque</i> . F280. Syn. of Henry IV.								
<i>Favori Musque du Conseiller</i> . D'57.507.69.782. Syn. of Henry IV.								
<i>Favori Musque du Conseiller</i> . V. M. Dapl55. A'75.68. Syn. of Ananas.								
<i>Favourette Morrel</i> . EFABC'00. Syn. of Morrel.	Fr.	oblp	ml	yr	comf	ep	l	Originated by M. Favre in 1850. Fruited in 1857.
<i>Favre</i> . L. Syn. Souvenir Favre.	Fr.	obop	m	gyr	jm	sp	g-vg	Originated by M. Favre at Châlons.
<i>Favre (Souv.)</i> . L. Syn. Souvenir Favre.								In the trial collection at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Fays</i> . R. Syn. Countess Clara Fays.	Md.	obop	m	gy	j	s	g	Originated from Seckel seed at Baltimore, by Samuel Feast.
<i>Feast</i> . D'69.759. Syn. Feast's Seedling.								Exhibited in St. Louis, September, 1847, by E. Mallinckrodt.
<i>Feaster</i> . A'52.92.54.84. MagoH'53.566. Agr'54.972. E'54.391.59.368. D'57.567. '69.703. H137. T'75.546. '85.561.97.701. Syn. of Blecker.								In Gibb's list of undescribed varieties.
<i>Feast's Seedling</i> . MagoH'40.46. D'66.768. Syn. of Feast.							vi	
<i>February</i> . R. Syn. February Pear.								
<i>February Pear</i> . Hort'47.246. Syn. of February.	Rus?							
<i>Felgen</i> . Gb. Syn. Felgenbirne.								
<i>Felgenbirne</i> . Gb. Syn. of Felgen.								
<i>Fellette Dundas</i> . D'69.759. Syn. of Dundas.								
<i>Felix de Leim</i> . Hort'65.393. D'69.759. AHorta'69.79. Syn. of Leim.	Pa	robl	m	yr	jm	vs	g	m
<i>Felton</i> . L. Syn. President Felton.								
<i>Fendale</i> . F280. Syn. of Flemish.								
<i>Ferdinand de Meeter</i> . D'45.469.57.581. '69.814. B'51.316. E'54.398.59.424. F282. T'75.546. '85.561.97.701. Syn. by Marie Parent.								
<i>Ferdinand de Meeter</i> . MagoH'48.110. D'69.864. Syn. of Meuris.								
<i>Ferdinand Gaillard</i> . EFABC'00. CanExFR'05.431. Syn. of Gaillard.	For.							
<i>Ferron</i> . L. Syn. Belle de Ferron.								
<i>Fertilitiy</i> . HAJ'68.74. CanH'89.10.11. IIIH'98.184. '01.255. FGAO'93.146. AndN '95. CanExFR'96.446. EFABC'00.		obov	m	yb	jm		p	m
<i>Fetel</i> . R. Syn. Calabasse Abbe Fetel.								Published by Field, on p. 276; not described. In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C. In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.

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[illegible]

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Not described.
On trial at Illinois agricultural
experimental stations.
May be intended for Forelle.
In Benjamin Buckman's trial
orchard, Farmingdale, Ill.
Exhibited by Robert Manning in
1946.
Originated by B. S. Fox, of Santa
Clara, Cal.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Fox Seedling</i> No. 196. A 75, 66, 77, 42.									
<i>Fox Seedling</i> No. 197. A 75, 66.									
<i>Fox Seedling</i> No. 250. A 71, 42.									
<i>Fox Seedling</i> No. 253. Mass H 77, 80.									
<i>France Orangel.</i> K 32, 185, 41, 153. Syn. of Franc Real (Sum.)	Conn.								Originated by Governor Edwards, of Connecticut. Resembles Virgoulouse.
<i>France.</i> Magof H 45, 262, 49, 43.									
<i>Franchepanne.</i> W P 10. Syn. of Frangipane.									
<i>Franchmont.</i> D 69, 766.	Fr.?	rob	s	yru	jm	sp	g-vg	m	Originated by Dr. S. A. Shurtleff. Fruited in 1862.
<i>Franchpene.</i> P 49. K 32, 136. Cult 39, 66. D 69, 767. Syn. of Frangipane.	Mass.								Shown by E. Stone, at meeting of Massachusetts Horticultural Society, 1877. Not described.
<i>Francis.</i> Mass H 66, 43.									
<i>Francis Borga.</i> A J of H V III, 228. A 75, 68. Dapl 55. Syn. of Onondaga.	Mass.	rp	m	yru					
<i>Francis Dana.</i> Mass H 77, 80.									
<i>Francis the Second.</i> Magof H 43, 131.									
<i>Francis.</i> F 280. Syn. of Bergia.									
<i>Francois Bergia.</i> D 69, 766. Syn. of Bergia.									
<i>Francois Binol.</i> EF A B C 00. Syn. of Binot.									
<i>Franc Real.</i> W P 12. P 109. Syn. of Catillac.									
<i>Franc Real.</i> P 104. K 32, 145, 41, 123. Gen F 33, 197. D 45, 436, 57, 574, 69, 766. E 54, 385, 59, 421. EF A B C 00. Syn. of Franc Real (Win.)									
<i>Franc Real d'Ete.</i> P 134. K 32, 185, 41, 153. Gen F 33, 196. Magof H 43, 367. D 45, 344, 57, 582, 69, 803. E 54, 384, 59, 410. F 282. T 75, 547, 85, 562, 97, 702. Syn. of Franc Real (Sum.)									
<i>Franc Real d'Hiver.</i> Gen F 33, 197, 37, 278. D 45, 436, 57, 574, 69, 766. A 54, 288. E 54, 385, 59, 421. H 159. T 75, 547, 85, 562, 97, 702. Syn. of Franc Real (Win.)									
<i>Franc Real (Sum.).</i> L. Syns. Bergamotte d'Ete ou Milan Blanc, Beurre Blanc, Beurre d'Ete, Coule Soli, France Cannel, Franc Real d'Ete, Fondante, Great Mouthwater, Green Chisel, Green Sugar, Gros Mice d'Ete, Gros Mouille Bonche, Hatveau Blanc, Koop's Fondante, Milan Blanc, Milan de la Beurriere, Mouille Bonche, Peble's Beurre, Royale, Summer Bergamot, Summer Franc Real.									
<i>Franc Real (Win.).</i> L. Syns. Fine Gold of Winter, Fin Or d'Hiver, Fine Winter Baking Pear, Franc Real, Franc Real d'Hiver, Frank Royal, Golden End of Winter, Gros Mice, Winter Franc Real.									
<i>Franchpene.</i> C 26. P 46. K 32, 136, 41, 121. H 159. D 69, 767. Syns. Franchepanne, Franchpene, Jasmin.	Fr.?	obo	m	yg	b	s	g	me	Origin supposed to be France.
<i>Franchpene.</i> Magof H 57, 108. Hort 57, 111. D 57, 501, 69, 703. F 223. E 59, 384. CGen IX, 100. T 75, 547, 85, 562, 97, 702. Syn. of Bleecker.		rp	m	yru	ee			vl	Only recommended for the kitchen.
<i>Franklin.</i> D 69, 373, 69, 384, 383. D 69, 791. Syn. of Johnnot.		rp	s	yru	jm	s	g	m	An old and probably obsolete variety.
<i>Franklin.</i> D 69, 380. Syn. of Saint Germain.									

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Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.		Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Fulvie. L. EFABC'00. Syna. Fulvie Gregoire, Nouvelle Fulvie		Belg....	p	vl	ybru	mbf	sp		vl	Description from Annals of Pomology.
Fulvie Gregoire. D'99'822. Syn. of Fulvie.										
Fantoka. MHSC'82'59. FGAO'0'83'228. Syn. of Found.										
Farnock. IndH'91'154. Syn. of Arnold....										
Fared'Ete. D'99'787. Syn. of Jargonille (Fr.).										
Gabrourellis. L. Syn. Gabrourellis Seedling.		For....								
Gabrourellis Seedling. F'80. Syn. of Gabrourellis.			obtp	m	gy	tjm	a		ml	Published by Field, p. 280; not described.
Gallard. R. Syn. Ferdinand Gallard.										
Gakovak. Gb. MichH'92'166. MinH'97'272. Syna. Gakovaka, Gakovakaya, Gakovak.		Rus....	p	sm	gy	b	v	p		In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C. Introduced from Russia in 1870.
Gakovak. IaH'85'321'382'90'207. IndH'85'27 C&C'96. FGAO'0'80'3. IaB3.										
NehH'89'55'90'245. MeP'90'82. Syn. of Gakovak.										
Gakovakaya. Gb. Syn. of Gakovak.										
Gakovakala. IaH'80'61.			ovobo	ml	gyb			g	m	Possibly the same as Gakovak. Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1882, p. 152.
Galston. R. Syn. Galston Moor Fowl Egg.										
Galston Moor Fowl Egg. MagOH'92'132. Syn. of Galston.										
Gambier. D'45'444'57'532'60'820. E'54'380'50'403. F'281. Syn. of Passe Colmar.										
Gambier's Butterbird. AoH'91'206. [Perhaps same as Passe Colmar.]										
Gans. NYC'90. A'91'124. C(O)H'89'117. AgR'91'300. IllH'96'45'178.		Ohio....			y			vg	me	Found on his farm by Joseph Gans, in 1871.
EFABC'90. Syn. Gans Seedling.										
Gans Seedling. E&B'92. Syn. of Gans.										
Gansel Bergamot. L. Syna. Bergamot Ganzel's, Bergamotte Ganzel's, Boune Rouge, Broce's Bergamot, Diamant, Dickson, Dixon, Gansel's Bergamot, Gansel's Bergamotte, Gansel's Bergamot, Gurle's Beurte, Ives Bergamot, Ives's Bergamot, Staumont.		Eng....	robo	l	ybru	mj	sp	vg	me	Raised at Donneland Hall by General Gansel.
Gansel's Bergamot. Pr74. K'32'135'41'127. GenF'83'166'37'277. M'38'81'44'68'47'71										
Call'39'06. D'45'366'57'457. Cole'58. E'54'360. NW FQ'55'40. H'150. A'92'68.										
T'75'284'85'302'97'476. Syn. of Gansel Bergamot.										
Gansel's Bergamotte. MagOH'48'200. E'54'360'50'384. H'150. B'83'381 D'69'769.										
T'83'302. Syn. of Gansel Bergamot.										
Gansel Late. L. Syna. Gansel's Late Bergamot, Gansel's Late Bergamotte, Late Gansel, Late Gansel's Bergamot.		Eng....	rob		gru	jgm	spv	g-vg	l	Raised by Mr. Williams, of Pit-maston, England.
Gansel's Late Bergamot. E'54'360. F'280. Syn. of Gansel Late.										
Gansel's Late Bergamotte. E'54'360'50'385. MagOH'57'158. D'57'502'69'769. T'75.										
547'85'562'97'708. Syn. of Gansel Late.										
Gansel's Bergamot. HoeH'17. Syn. of Gansel Bergamot.		Eng....	of	ms	yru	cojm	vp	vg	m	Raised by Mr. Williams, of Pit-maston, England.
Gansel Seckel. MichSB'27. MichB'187'104. Syn. Gansel's Seckel.										

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Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.		Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>General de Bouchamp</i> . Dapl76. Syn. of Bouchamp.										
<i>General de Lamortière</i> . F280. Syn. of Lamortière.										
<i>General de Lourmel</i> . Magoff1157361. Hort57516. D'57503, '69770. E'59385. F'280. T'75547, '85562, '97703. Syn. of Lourmel.										
<i>General Dutilleul</i> . Agr14245. Hort59491. F280. D'69770. Syn. of Dutilleul.										
<i>Gen. Dutilleul</i> . Hort72130. Syn. of Dutilleul.										
<i>General Duvièvre</i> . D'69088. Aoff1191296. Syn. of Duvièvre.										
<i>Gen. Grand</i> . Mass119441, '987. A'67156, '9946. Syn. of Grand.		Mass.								Raised by Dr. S. A. Shurtleff, of Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1862.
<i>Gen. Kearney</i> . Mass119643.										
<i>General Lamortière</i> . Magoff1152296. E'54374, '59395. D'57502, '69771. Hort'61.										
316. T'75547, '85562, '97703. Syn. of Lamortière.		Ont.?								Fruited by Rev. R. Burnet, of Ontario, in 1872.
<i>General Negley</i> . FGAoff721474, '7723.		Mass.	t	m		mj			ml	Raised by Dr. S. A. Shurtleff, of Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1865.
<i>General Obdam</i> . K'41170. Magoff1142250. Syn. of Obdam.		Md.	obtp	m	yr	cojm	s	g-vg	m	Introduced by L. N. Rogers, of Baltimore, Md.
<i>Gen. Sherman</i> . Mass119643.										
<i>General Taylor</i> . Magoff115475299. WHR11586. D'57503, '69771. F273. F'59385. T'75547, '85562, '97703. Hort75244. A'7750. B'83381. Syns. Homewood, Keyports.										
<i>General Todleben</i> . D'69771. FGAoff9281. T'85562. Syn. of Todleben.										
<i>Gen. Todleben</i> . Hort72130. Can119138. MoH'8796. Syn. of Todleben.										
<i>General Todleben</i> . Aoff11287. Hort'66138. AHortA'7077. D'69771. T'75547, '85562, '97703. B'83381. F'FABC00. Syn. of Todleben.										
<i>Gen. Todleben</i> . Magoff115970. Hort70355. Syn. of Todleben.										
<i>General Warren</i> . A'8198. Mass118224, '8627. Syn. of Brabant.										
<i>Genesee</i> . D'69859. Syn. of Stevens.										
<i>Genesee Virgalleu</i> . A'6953.										
<i>Gen. L.</i> . T'97703. Syn. Beurre Gons.		Belg.	obop	m	yr	djm	sv	vg	m	Mr. Hoag spoke of this as a valuable early variety.
<i>George Augustus</i> . Mass117291.		Mass.							l	Tree vigorous and fruitful. Raised by Francis Dana. Much like Winter Nellis.
<i>Georges</i> . L. Syn. Saint Georges.		For.								Published by Field, p. 282; not described.
<i>Gerardo</i> . Magoff1157161. D'69771. Syn. Peire Gerardo.		Eur.	robtp	ml	yr	cogb	sav	g	m	
<i>Gerardia</i> . D'57503, '69772. E'59385. T'75547, '85562, '97703. Syns. Gerardine, Girardin, Girardin, La Girardin.		Eur.	r	m	yr	cogb	a	g-p		
<i>Gerardine</i> . D'69772. Syn. of Girardin.										
<i>Gerhard</i> . R. Syn. Gerbard's Butter.										Handsome, good, productive. See PaFGS, 1871, p. 66.

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	ap	s	gru	jb	s	m	
Goat-herd. EFABC'00. CanExFr'04, 480.							In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Gobbelschroy. R. Syn. Van Gobbelschroy							Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1855, p. 146.
Gobert. D'69, 772. Syn. of Glogli.							
Gobley. BBL.....							
Goes. L. Syn. Philippe Goes.							In Benjamin Buckman's trial Orchard, Farmington, Ill.
Goiconda. R. Syns. Goiconda Nova, Goicondi Nova.	Belg	rp	sm	mj	vp	g-vg	Said to resemble Melio.
Goiconda Nova. MagoffH'46, 367. Syn. of Goiconda.							Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1846, p. 367.
Goicondi Nova. MagoffH'52, 470. Syn. of Goiconda.							
Golden Bell. MassH'65, 44, 66, 43	Mass						Grown by Dr. S. A. Shurtleff of Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1862.
Golden Bourre. Pr49. K'32, 135. GenF'33, 196, 37, 277. D'45, 357, 57, 471, 69, 710. E'54, 350, 59, 390. F'238. Syn. of Brown.							
Golden Burrer of Bilboa. K'32, 177, 41, 145. GenF'37, 57, 7. M'38, 90, 44, 70, 47, 75. D'45, 382, 57, 461, 69, 73. ColeH'57, W'670. HortV, 99. Hort'47, 174, 73, 278. Agr'53, 280, 54, 250. E'54, 326, 59, 338. T'75, 275, 85, 293, 97, 470. B'83, 378. Syn. of Bilboa.							
Golden Bourre (of some English collections). Hovi, 99. Hort'73, 22. Syn. of Bilboa.							
Golden Bilboa. Agr'50, 94. Syn. of Bilboa.							
Golden End of Winter. Pr104. D'69, 766. Syn. of Franc Real (Win.).							
Golden Knop. MagoffH'43, 131. Syn. of Knop.							
Golden Knop Begonia. MagoffH'43, 131. Syn. of Begmin.							
Golden Russet. Ia 131. HortV, 99. Syns. Cammer's Japan, Japan Golden, Japan Golden Russet, Japan Russet, Talpa.							
Gold of Summer. MagoffH'51, 262. Syn. of Fine Gold (Sum.).							
Gold Pear. Moh'87, 96.	Eur						
Gommery. L. Syn. Beurre de Gommery.....							Cultivated in Montgomery County, Missouri.
Goodale. MassH'41, 96, 46, 47, 73, 97. AllHortA'68, 75, 90, 70, 77. Hort'69, 372, 73, 37, 74, 340. D'69, 773. IllH'71, 132. MeP'73, 44, 75, 114, 86, 49. AllHII'243, 77, 547, 85, 562, 97, 703. MichH'175, 60. Syns. Goodale's seedling, Saco.	For Me.	oblp	l	ycru	jmg	svp	Raised from seed by Enoch Goodale, of Saco, Me.
Goodale's Seedling. D'69, 773. Syn. of Goodale.						vg	
Good Christian of Spain. C209. Pr63. D'69, 858. Syn. of Spanish.							
Good Christian of Winter. C203. Pr62. D'69, 884. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Win.).							
Good Gray. C185. Pr34. H102. Syn. of Grise-Bonne.							
Good Louis. Pr67. Syn. of Louise Bonne.							
Good Louise. Pr67. K'32, 174, 41, 146. Syn. of Louise Bonne.							
Good's Heathcot. Pr143. K'32, 174, 41, 146. GenF'38, 85. D'45, 354, 57, 507, 69, 780. MassH'48, 102. Hovi, 99.							
Good's Heathcot. Pr143. K'32, 174, 41, 146. GenF'38, 85. D'45, 354, 57, 507, 69, 780. MassH'48, 102. Hovi, 99.							
Gossart. R. Syn. Colmar Gossart.....							
Got. F280.							
Got Luc de Cambon. GenF'33, 196. D'45, 437, 57, 503, 69, 773. Hovi, 15. Agr'62, 185. Syn. of Glout Moreau.							
Goubault. Gh. Bulc. T'97, 476. Syns. Beurre Goubault, Beurre Goubault, Poire Goubault.	For	obo	s	gy	jm	p	g
Goubault (Winter). T'97, 480. Syn. of Goubault (Doyenne).							me
							Originated in France in 1842.
							Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1855, p. 146. Not described.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Goubault (Doyenne). L. Syns. Chapen, Doyenne Goubault, Doyenne Goubault, Goubault (Winter). Gouth Moreau. D'45, 437, 57, 593, 69, 773. Hov 1.5. E'54, 325, 59, 339. F'280. Syn. of Gouth Moreau. Gouth Moreau de Chambon. D'60, 773. Syn. of Gouth Moreau. Gov. Carver. Massil' 66, 45.	Fr..... Mass. Mass.?	obop	ml	ynu	mj	sp	g-vg	vl	Originated at Angers, France.
Governor Stuyvesant. Gen F'37, 278. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Sum.). Grace Wilder. Massil' 74, 152.	Mass. Mass.?								Originated at Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1863.
Gracieuze. Gen F'33, 196. Syn. of Colmar. Gracieuze. K'41, 135. D'45, 353, 57, 454, 69, 778. E'54, 389, 59, 417. H124. F'276. Syn. of Hampden. Gracioli. Pr'50. K'41, 120. Massil' 16, 150. F'278. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Sum.). Gracioli d' Hiver. D'60, 680. Syn. of Del. Gracioli de la Toussaint. D'60, 680. Syn. of Spanish. Gracioli of Jersey. D'57, 515, 69, 791. F'280. B'83, 381. Syn. of Gratioli. Gracioli (of the French). K'32, 132. Gen F'37, 277. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Sum.). Gracioli Rouge. D'69, 883. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Sum.). Graham's Autumn Nellis. D'60, 664. Syn. of Autumn Nellis. Graham's Bergamot. Magoth' 59, 69. C'Gen XIII, 47. D'69, 664. Syn. of Autumn Nellis.									Exhibited by Col. M. P. Wilder; probably named for a daughter.
Grain de Corail. F'280. Syn. of Forelle. Graine de Corail. Massil' 51, 189. Syn. of Forelle. Grand Bretagne. Magoth' 38, 436. Hort 58, 321. D'60, 774. Syn. of Bretagne. Grand Dauphin. Magoth' 43, 131. Syn. of Dauphin. Grand duc de Toscane. Magoth' 55, 146. Syn. of Toscane. Grande Bretagne doree. K'32, 194. Cult 38, 66. Syn. of Bretagne. Grande Bretagne Doree d' Hiver. Gen F'33, 197. Syn. of Bretagne. Grande Bretagne Doree Fondante. Gen F'33, 197. Syn. of Bretagne. Grande Epine d' Ete. Pr'56. Syn. of Great Summer Thorn. Grand L'ne. Dap'16. A'87, 96. H'87, 166. IndH' 80, 82. MchBul'31. H1H' 92, 173. A1H' 42, 47.	Vt.	robop	m	y	jm	sv	vg	m	Originated by Benjamin Ma- comber, at Grand Isle, Vt.
Grand L'gal. D'60, 716. Syn. of Catillac. Grand Monarque. K'32, 151, 41, 128. D'45, 432, 57, 563, 69, 716. E'54, 392, 59, 419. Syn. of Catillac. Grand Monarque. H162. Syn. of Yair. Grand Monarque. F'280. Syn. of Salomon. Grand Salomon. K'41, 170. M'41, 170. H'42, 250, 53, 107, 197. E'54, 369, 59, 386. D'57, 505, 69, 775. H161. F'75, 292, 85, 310, 763. Syn. of Soleil. Grand Soleil. Massil' 51, 189. WHR11, 560. AgR' 54, 245. C'Gen XIII, 288. H161. F'280. Syn. of Soleil.									

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Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Great King Louis.</i> Cult '47, 340. Syn. of King Louis.									Grown in pioneer days in Edgar County, Ill.
<i>Great Mammoth.</i> IIIH'60, 240.									
<i>Great Mouthwater.</i> D'69, 863. Syn. of Franc Real (Sum.)									
<i>Great Mouthwater.</i> Pr26. Syn. of Long Green.									
<i>Great Musk Pear of Cone.</i> Pr11. D'69, 818. Syn. of Muscat Robert.									
<i>Great Onion Pear.</i> Pr24. K'32, 132. D'69, 862. Syn. of Archduke.									
<i>Great Orange.</i> Pr42. D'69, 825. Syn. of Orange Striped.									
<i>Great Pear.</i> A'76, 80. HMH'814. Syn. of Endicott.									
<i>Great Pear of Virrier.</i> Pr107. Syn. of Grosse Vitrier.									
<i>Great Rake Pear.</i> Pr117. Syn. of French Pound.									
<i>Great Rousselet.</i> Pr21. D'69, 843. Syn. of Summer King.									
<i>Great Summer Thorn.</i> Pr28. Syn. Grande Epine d'Ete.									
<i>Greeley.</i> L. Syn. Horace Greeley.	Conn.	robtp	ml	yg yru	m cojm	s s	m m		Originated by Dr. J. J. Howe, of Birmingham, Conn. Brought to America in 1892. Exhibited at Louisville, Ky., in the autumn of 1890.
<i>Green Achan.</i> Magoth'43, 130. Syn. of Achan.									
<i>Green Bergamot.</i> Gh. Syn. Bergamot Zelennl.									
<i>Green Beurte.</i> Hort'60, 440.	Rus.?								
<i>Green Butler.</i> Pr40. Syn. of Brown.									
<i>Green Caluarine.</i> SW. A'54, 238. E'54, 394, 50, 421. H162. Syn. of Early Rousselet									
<i>Green Caluarine.</i> C184. Magoth'50, 286. Syn. of Rheims.									
<i>Green Caluarine.</i> K'32, 137, 41, 120. Syn. of Summer Thorn.									
<i>Green Chisel.</i> SW. Pr14. GenF'37, 277. (ult'30, 66. D'45, 337, 99, 775. A'54, 238.									
E'54, 394, 50, 422. H162. T'75, 547, 85, 563, 97, 703. Syn. of Chisel.									
<i>Green Chisel.</i> K'32, 137, 41, 120. D'57, 582. F282. Syn. of Franc Real (Sum.)									
<i>Green Chisel.</i> Pr17. Syn. of Hastiveau.									
<i>Green Chisel</i> (incorrectly). C178. Pr13. K'32, 129. D'45, 341, 57, 441. F281.									
T'83, 270. Syn. of Madeleine.									
<i>Green Chisel.</i> Gart'al57. Syn. of Chisel.									
<i>Green Citron of Bohemia.</i> F280. Syn. of Bohemia.									
<i>Green Citron.</i> A'53, 75. Agr'73, 360. Syn. of Nalours.									
<i>Green Germanon.</i> Hort'60, 507, 50, 155. E'54, 338, 35, 371. Hof. Syn. of Chancelor.									
<i>Green Magdalen.</i> E'FAC'00.									
<i>Green Mountain Boy.</i> E'54, 399, 50, 380. H162. F273. D'69, 775. T'75, 547, 85,									
563, 97, 703. Syn. of Montcalm.									
<i>Green Mouth.</i> Pr n. d. K'32, 138. Syn. of Long Green.									
<i>Green Muscat.</i> K'33, 127. Syn. of (a)solette.									
<i>Green Muscat.</i> Exche Iron. Pr1. Syn. of (a)solette.									
<i>Green Pear.</i> SW. [An August variety in the Catalogue of Silas Wharton, 1824.]									
<i>Green Pear of Laxton.</i> Magoth'43, 131. Syn. of Laxton.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.

Published by M'Mahon in Gardner's Calendar in 1806.

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Gros Mict.	D'69,766	Syn. of Franc Real (Win.)
Gros Micet d'Eir.	Prl34.	K'32,185; 41,143. GenF'33,197. MagoffH'43,367. D'45,
Gros Mouille Bouche.	F'282.	E'54,384,'59,411. F'282. Syn. of Franc Real (Sum.)
Gros Muscadelle.	P'r56.	K'32,138. Syn. of Long Green.
Gros Omonel.	P'r24.	D'69,862. Syn. of Brussels.
Gros Querc.	D'69,734.	Syn. of Louvain.....
Gros Retaux.	K'32,151 & 128.	D'69,716. Syn. of Catillac.
Gros Retaux Gris.	K'41,128.	D'69,716. Syn. of Catillac.
Gros Retaux Gris.	Prl17.	Cult'47,340. Syn. of French Pound.
Gros Romain.	E'54,300,'59,418.	Syn. of Romain.
Gros Rousselet.	P'r21.	K'32,28,41,119. A'54,238. E'54,369,'59,424. D'69,843. Syn. of Summer King.
Gros Rousselet d'Aout.	D'57,505,69,776.	F'280. E'59,386. T'75,548,'85,593,97,704.
Syn. of August Rousselet.		
Gros Saint Jean Musquee.	Prl11.	Syn. of Muscat Robert.
Grosse Allongé.	P'r58.	Syn. of Large Oblong.
Grosse Anglaise.	F'276.	Syn. of Bergamote d'Automne.
Grosse Andrieux.	Cult'47,340.	Syn. of Angleterre (Nois.).
Grosse Besseman.	(Pear without seeds). CanfI'94,201.	
Grosse Blanquet.	P'l15.	K'32,128. D'69,775. Syn. of Blanquette.
Grosse Blanche Ronde.	P'l15.	K'41,126. D'69,737. Syn. of Round Blanquet.
Grosse Calceuth.	MagoftH'47,188.	Syn. of Van Marum.
Grosse Calchasse du Nord.	D'69,873.	Syn. of Van Marum.
Grosse Calchasse de Langlier.	Massif'53,20.	MagoftH'54,85. Agr'54,245. E'59,363, T'75,548,'85,593,97,704. Syn. of Van Marum.
Grosse Calchasse de Noisette.	MagoftH'54,85.	Syn. of Van Marum.
Grosse Cassolette.	P'r32.	Syn. of Great Cassolette.
Grosse Cymeline.	Prl19.	Syn. of Crimson.
Grosse Cuisee Madame.	Prl32.	GenF'33,197.'37,277. D'45,337,'57,514,'69,758. E'54, 373,'59,393. F'280. Syn. of Jargonelle (Eng.).
Grosse Dame Jehanne.	D'69,833.	Syn. of Pound.
Grosse De Bruicelles.	F'283.	D'69,836. Syn. of Pound.
Grosse Dorothée.	D'45,340,'57,424,60,686.	HovL'77. E'54,313,'56,327. F'277. Agr- '62,181. Syn. of Diel.
Grosse Figue.	D'69,760.	Syn. of FIGUE.
Grosse Grand Brétagne.	D'69,858.	Syn. of Spanish.
Grosse Grand Bretagne Dorcé.	D'69,858.	Syn. of Spanish.
Grosse Jargonelle.	D'69,883.	Syn. of Windsor.
Grosse Marie.	D'57,505,'69,811. F'280.	E'59,386. T'75,548,'85,593,'97,704. Syn. of Marchal.
Grossoe Moullie Bouche.	Massif'44,63.	
Grosse Muscadelle.	P'r23.	Syn. of Large Muscadell.
Grosse Poire de Vitrier.	Prl07.	Syn. of Grosse Vitrier.
Grosse Quisee Madame.	K'32,128.	Syn. of Jargonelle (Eng.).

May differ from Bessemianka.

Exhibited by William Kenrick at
meeting of Massachusetts Hor-
ticultural Society, 1844.

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Originated by W. C. Hampton, of
Mount Victory, Ohio.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.		Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Hampton Cluster. L. Syns. Cluster Pear, Hampton, Hampton's Cluster.		Ohio	r	vs	gyru	jm	s	vg	me	Originated by W. C. Hampton, of Mount Victory, Ohio.
Hampton's Cluster. D'69, 778. Syn. of Hampton Cluster.		Ohio	rp	m	gyru	gjm	v	vg	m	Originated by W. C. Hampton, of Mount Victory, Ohio.
Hampton's Virgaleu. D'69, 778. Syn. of Hampton Virgaleu.		Mass.								Originated by Dr. Shurtleff, of Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1861.
Hancock. Mass 1'66, 44.										C. M. Hovey, in Magazine of Horticulture, 1850, p. 72, said, "This is Cushing."
Hanging Pear. Pr84. Syn. of Pendant.										Originated at Hanover Furnace, N. J.
Hanna. D'57, 485. Syn. of Hanners.										
Hannas. Mass 1'44, 60. Hort' 48, 397. B'51, 306. D'69, 778. Syn. of Hanners.		Mass	obtp	l	gyru	jm	sp	vg	me	
Hannas. Magoff 1'47, 480, 702. B'51, 306. E'54, 370, 59, 388. D'57, 485. H163. F273.										
A 62, 68. T'75, 275, 85, 263, 97, 471. Syns. Hannus, Hanna, Hannas, Hanners.										
Hannars. Cole 159. Magoff 1'50, 72. Syn. of Cushing.										
Hannars. E'54, 370. D'57, 778. T'85, 293. Syn. of Hanners.		N. J.	robo	ms	yrub	mj	v	g	m	
Hanover. Magoff 1'53, 516, 54, 268. E'54, 370, 59, 388. D'57, 506, 69, 779. H163. F273.										
Hardenpont. Pr91. Syn. of Glout Moreau.		Fr.	r	m	gyru	mj	sp	g-vg	m	
Hardenpont (Ang.) L. Syns. Beurre des Hautes, Beurre Lasalle, Delices d'Angers, Delices d'Ardenpont, Delices d'Hardenpont, Beurre d'Hardenpont d'Angers, Delices d'Hardenpont de Toulouse, Delices d'Hardenpont d'Angers, Vignes.		Belg	tr	m	gy	bjm	sp	g	ml	
Hardenpont (Belg.) L. Syns. Arch Duc Charles, Archduke Charles, Beurre Curlet (of A. Leroy), Charles d'Autriche, Charles of Austria, Delices d'Ardenpont, Delices d'Hardenpont, Delices d'Hardenpont du Nord and Belgium, Delices d'Hardenpont of Belgium, Fondante Pariselle, Fondante Pariselle du Comice, Horticulte, Pariselle.										
Hardenpont d'Hiver. GenF'33, 197. K'41, 161. D'45, 437, 57, 503, 69, 773. Hov1, 5.										
Hardenpont du Printemps. Pr54. K'42, 190, 41, 158. GenF'33, 198, 37, 278. D'45, 427.										
Hardenpont du Printemps (of some). D'45, 438. Syn. of Jaminette.										
Hardenpont's Winter Butterbarn. D'15, 437. Hov1, 5. Syn. of Glout Moreau.										
Hardy. S92. MchH'88, 118. IIIH'96, 167. T'97, 471. Beurre Hardy, Beurre Sterckmans, Beurre AHM'948. Syns. Beurre Hardi, Beurre Hardy, Beurre Sterckmans, Beurre Sterckman, Sterckman's Beurre (erroneously).		Me	obtp	l	grub	bmj	vp	vg	m	Originated by S. C. Harlow, of Bangor, Me., from seed of Bartlett.
Harlow. MeP'76, 11, 77, 12.										

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Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.		Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Haitique</i> , Pr17. Syn. of <i>Hastiveau</i> .										
<i>Haitique de la foret</i> , Pr18. Magoffi'43,131. Syn. of <i>Gros Hastiveau</i> .										
<i>Haitique</i> , C178. K41,118. Fl164. D'69,775. Syn. of <i>Chisel</i> .										
<i>Haitique</i> , Pr17. Syn. of <i>Hastiveau</i> .										
<i>Haitique Blanc</i> , D'69,863. Syn. of <i>Franc Real</i> (Sum.).										
<i>Haitique Gros de la foret</i> , Pr18. Syn. of <i>Gros Hastiveau</i> .										
<i>Haitique</i> , Pr17. Syn. of <i>Hastiveau</i> .										
<i>Haut Montec</i> , F28-0. Syn. of <i>Montec</i> .										
<i>Hawall</i> , IndH'79,46. MichH'80,84. Bl229,244. LaB22. OH'98,8. PJB'01. Syn. of <i>Sandwich Island Pear</i> .		Va.	r	ms	gyru	bmj	s	g	m	Dr. Black thinks this belongs to the Oriental class of pears. Originated in King and Queen County, Va.
<i>Hawes</i> , L. Syns. <i>Hawes' Winter</i> , <i>Hewes' Winter</i> , <i>Morgan</i> .										
<i>Hawes' Winter</i> , D'57,506, '69,780. AgR'58,421. E'59,389. T'75,548, '85,563, '97,704. Syn. of <i>Hawes</i> .										
<i>Hawthorne</i> , R. Syns. <i>Hawthorne's Seedling</i> , <i>Hawthorne's Seedling</i> .										
<i>Hawthorne's Seedling</i> , Magoffi'43,388. MassH'44,60. A'54,238. Syn. of <i>Hawthorne</i> .										
<i>Hayer</i> , MichH'76,143.										
<i>Hays</i> , MassH'44,61. Magoffi'50,296. A'54,238. KanH'74,158.		Pa.							me	Not described. Originated in Cumberland County, Pa., about 1800.
<i>Hazel</i> , Pr202. K'32,178, '41,147. GenF'33,197. D'45,337, '57,575, '66,783. E'54,336, '59,422. H1164. F280. KanH'82,136. IaH'84,508. T'75,548, '85,563, '97,704. Syn. of <i>Hessel</i> .										
<i>Heathcot</i> , Magoffi'37,15, '46,438. M'38,78, '44,60, '47,65. D'45,394, '57,597, '66,780. Hort'46,241, '47,417. MassH'48,102. Cole162. G84. R'51,306. WG71. Hort'189. E'54,326, '69,388. H1165. F273. HMHS222. T'75,275, '85,283, '97,471. Syns. <i>Gore's Heathcot</i> , <i>Heathcot de Gore</i> .		Mass.	obo	m	gyru	bmj	v	g-vg	m	First shown at meeting of Massachusetts Horticultural Society, November, 1829.
<i>Heathcot de Gore</i> , F280. Syn. of <i>Heathcot</i> .										
<i>Hebe</i> , Hort'68,198. A'61,160, '77,137. AJOH'111,319, V11,233. D'66,780. GaH'85,47, '83,54. H11796,234. Syn. of <i>Heathcot</i> .		S. C.	robo	l	gyru	mb	v		l	Raised by William Sumner, of Pomaria, S. C.
<i>Hebron</i> , Unit'45,304. Magoffi'58,593. Hort'58,168,473,492, '59,170, '75,211. A'58,54, '62,76. E'59,494. AJOH'111,158. Syn. of <i>Pincoe</i> .										
<i>Heere pear</i> , F271. D'68,780. T'75,276, '85,283, '97,421. Syns. <i>Hagerman</i> , <i>Hampton</i> , <i>Hegerman</i> , <i>NATC'49,17</i> .		N. Y.	rov	m	gyru	jm	s	g-vg	m	Originated by Andrew Hegerman, at North Hempstead, N. Y.
<i>Hegerman</i> , NATC'49,17. Magoffi'50,153, '53,91. D'57,506, '69,780. Syn. of <i>Hegerman</i> .										
<i>Hegerman</i> , D'69,780. Syn. of <i>Hegerman</i> .										
<i>Hetherberg</i> , Magoffi'53,564. A'54,484. D'57,547, '69,703. E'59,367. Syn. of <i>Bleeker</i> .										
<i>Helmboer</i> , L. Syns. <i>Bergamote de Heimbouurg</i> , <i>Bergamote Heimbouurg</i> , <i>Bergamotte Heimbouurg</i> .		Belg.	obl	l	gybr	djb	sp		m	Raised by M. Bivort.

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Hertzog. R. Syn. Colmar Herzog.										Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1885, p. 186.									
<i>Herzogin Von Mouchu</i> . AofH 91, 206. Syn. of Von Mouchu.																			
<i>Hessl</i> . GenF 73, 197. Cult 39, 66. D'45, 337, 57, 575, 69, 783. Hort 49, 410. MagofH 51, 263. A'54, 238. E'54, 396, 59, 622. H164. F200. Agr 58, 407. T'75, 548, 85, 538, 97, 705. AofH 90, 151. Syn. Hasselbirm. Hazel.																			
<i>Hewes</i> . A'52, 83, 56, 88. MagofH 54, 280. Agr 56, 3, 66.																			
<i>Hewes' Winter</i> . D'69, 780. T'85, 563. Syn. of Hewes.																			
<i>Heyst d'Angers</i> . EFABC 00.																			
<i>Heyst</i> (Eliza). L. Syns. Belle Crainese, Elise d'Heyst, Eliza d'Heyst.																			
<i>Heyst</i> (Emile). L. Bulb, 8. AII M249. Syn. Emile d'Heyst.																			
<i>Hill</i> . R. Syn. Hill's Fall Butter.																			
<i>Hill's Fall Butter</i> . MagofH 44, 168, 212. MassH 44, 52. Syn. of Hill.																			
<i>Hingham</i> . D'68, 783.																			
<i>His Poiteau</i> . D'69, 850. Syn. of Menin.																			
<i>Hochelmer</i> . R. Syn. Hochelmer Butterbirne.																			
<i>Hochelmer Butterbirne</i> . MagofH 43, 131. Syn. of Hochelmer.																			
<i>Hocrenaulte</i> . P'63. D'68, 844. Syn. of Ronville.																			
<i>Hoe-Langer Hoe-Liever</i> . D'68, 864. Syn. of St. Germain (Sum.).																			
<i>Holsla</i> . MII SC 86, 82.																			
<i>Hog</i> . CalSBoH 92, 49. Syn. Pera de Coche.																			
<i>Hohenstein</i> . CanExFR 00, 462. EFABC 00.																			
<i>Holland</i> . L. Syns. Bergamotte d'Holland d'Alencon, Holland Green, Holland.																			
<i>Holland Bergamot</i> . C208. P'73. GenF 37, 278. K'41, 126. D'45, 430, 57, 564, 69, 784.																			
<i>Hollande</i> . L. Syns. Amoselle, Bergamotte d'Alencon, Bergamotte de Fougere, Bergamotte d'Hiver d'Holland, Bergamotte d'Holland, Bergamotte d'Hollande, Beurre d'Alencon, Beurre Extra, Holland Bergamot, Hollande Bergamotte, Hollandische Bergamotte, Jardin de Jougars, Lord Cheney, Lord Cheaney's, Musquine de Bretagne, Pensionnaire de Hollande, Sarah.																			
<i>Hollande Bergamotte</i> . K'32, 146. H160. F'27. E'59, 417. D'69, 784. Syn. of Hollande.																			
<i>Holland Fig</i> . EFABC 00.																			
<i>Holland Green</i> . C109. SW. K'32, 137, 41, 127. MagofH 37, 51. IndF 40, 136. H165.																			
<i>Holland 784</i> . Syn. of Holland.																			
<i>Hollandish Bergamotte</i> . D'69, 784. Syn. of Hollande.																			
<i>Holland Table Pear</i> . C160. K'32, 137, 41, 127. H165. D'69, 784. Syn. of Holland.																			
<i>Holmar</i> . P'209. Syn. of Holmore.																			
<i>Holmar</i> . P'209. Syn. of Holmore.																			
<i>Holmore</i> . P'209. GenF 37, 218. CGenX 230. Syns. Holmar, Holmer, New Holmar.																			
<i>Holy Father</i> . P'113. Syn. of Saint Pere.																			
<i>Holzfarbige Butterbirne</i> . MH9C 82, 58. FG AofO 83, 222. Syn. of Fondante de Bois.																			
<i>Homestead</i> . Dap150. MassH 77, 80.																			

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.		Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Honeyseed</i> . Hort '63, 176. OH '65, 41, '66, 58. D '69, 771. FGAofO '74, 12. A '77, 50. B '83, 381. Syn. of General Taylor.		(Amer. {	rd	ms	yru	coj	s	s	me	An old variety of doubtful origin.
<i>Honey</i> . P '216. M '31, 108. MagoffH '40, 131. E '54, 327, '59, 391. H '66. D '69, 784. EFAAC '04. Syn. of Honey.		(Eur. }								
<i>Honey Alexander</i> . L '17. Syn. of Honey.		Rus.	rp	m	yrb	coj	s		me	Introduced from Russia in 1879.
<i>Honey (Russia)</i> . Gb. CanEAF '96, 136, '03, 421. Syn. Gliva Medovaya (Honeybirne)		Rus.		m	yrb	coj	s		me	Not described.
<i>Honey Street</i> . Syn. FGAofO '93, 146.		Fr.	obip	m	ygr	m	ps		me	Received from Troyes, France.
<i>Honey's Ribbon</i> . Syn. MagoffH '58, 390. D '45, 362, '57, 461, '69, 773. Hovl '99. E '54, 326, '59, 337. T '75, 548, '85, 644, '97, 705. Syn. of Ribbon.										
<i>Hosack</i> . Masell '74, 18. A '87, 95. OH '57, 103. IH '57, 50. Syn. of Hosack.		Mass.	robbp	l	gyru	jm	p	vg	m	Raised by Asabel Foote from seed of Hacon.
<i>Hosack</i> . Dapl '77. B '83, 370. T '85, 564, '97, 705. HAJ '98. WNYH '90, 116, '91, 20. GHM & S '90. E & B '02. AHM '240. Syna. Hacon's Seedling No. 3, Hoosac.		Mass.								Exhibited by James Sigerson at meeting of Indiana Horticultural Society, August, 1840.
<i>Hoosier</i> . IndF '40, 105.		Ind.		ml						Not described.
<i>Hornace Gredeley</i> . Dapl '50. Syn. of Greeley.										Shown at World's Columbian Exposition, 1883, by Illinois Horticultural Society.
<i>Hortmer</i> . R. Syn. Beurre Canton Hortmer.										
<i>Horn</i> . BBL. Syna. Horn's Seedling, Horn's Winter.										
<i>Horn's Seedling</i> . IH '93, 76. Syn. of Horn.										
<i>Horn's Winter</i> . IH '96, 204, 215. Syn. of Horn.										
<i>Horticulture</i> . MassH '44, 61. MagoffH '50, 296. A '54, 238.										
<i>Hortoles</i> . L. Syn. Professor Hortoles.		Fr.	robp	ml	yru	djm	sv	b	m	Rejected by Congress of Fruit Growers, 1849.
<i>Horta-Schenck</i> . IH '90, 14. Syn. of Hosenschenck.		Fr.								Originated on the farm of John Schenck in Weaver Township, Pa.
<i>Hosenschenck</i> . Hort '53, 458, '75, 275. E '54, 372, '59, 391. H '68. F '71. A '92, 112. AJoH '11, 223. D '69, 784. IH '81, 200. Syna. Butter Pear, Eshleman, Hosenschenck, Hosenschenck, Hosen Shenk, Moore, Moore's, Moore's Pear, Moore's Pound, Moor's Pound, Moore's White Pound, Queen of August, Schenck's August, Schenck's August Watermelon, Schenck's Pear, Shenks, Smokehouse, Watermelon.		Pa.	rob	m	ygr	coj	v	g-vg	me	
<i>Hosenschenck</i> . MagoffH '53, 452. E '54, 372. D '57, 506, '69, 784. T '85, 296, '97, 705. Syn. of Hosenschenck.										
<i>Hosen Stenk</i> . MagoffH '53, 499. Syn. of Hosenschenck.										
<i>Hoskins</i> . R. Syn. Dr. Hoskins.		Conn.	rp	ml	gy	jm	v		m	Not described.
<i>Houstonale</i> . Dapl '51.										Originated by Dr. J. J. Howe, of Birmingham, Conn.
<i>Houser</i> . MoH '90, 38.										Mentioned by Judge Miller in Missouri Horticultural Society, 1896, p. 36.

Hovey. MagoffH'54,225. D'57,509, '69,784. F280. E'59,391. T'75,548, '85,564/97,705. Syn. Doyenne Hovey. Hovey. MassH'60,50. Syn. of Dunas Hovey. Hovey Dana's. A'62,68. Syn. of Dunas Hovey. Howard. A'67,130. D'69,785.	Fr.	obtp	ml	ygru	bjm	sp	vg	m	Raised by Andre Leroy and named for C. M. Hovey.
Howe. L. Syn. Doctor Victor Howe	Conn.	robo	m	yr	jm	sp	vg	me	Received from C. W. Colt, of Norwich, Conn.
Howell. MagoffH'49,69. Hort'51,115, '55,330, '70,175, '72,245, '73,188. Hov11,75. W'18,14. B'51,366, '83,370. E'54,372, '59,340. AgR'54,246, '66,194. D'57,510, '69,785. F246. T'75,276, '85,294, '97,471. HMHS285. Wn1,335. Syn. Howell's Seedling. MagoffH'48,519. Syn. of Howell.	Conn.	robt	m	gyru	jm	sv	m	Originated by Dr. J. J. Howe, of Birmingham, Conn.	
Howell's Seedling. MagoffH'48,519. Syn. of Howell.	Conn.	rp	l	yr	jm	v	vg	m	Raised by Thos. Howell, of New Haven, Conn., in 1842.
Howe No. 12. A'73,68. Originated by Dr. J. J. Howe, of Birmingham, Conn.]									
Howe No. 20. A'73,68. Originated by Dr. J. J. Howe, of Birmingham, Conn.]									
Howe. (v. in.). Syn. Howe's Winter.	Va.	r	l	yr			g	l	Said to have originated in Virginia. Published in the Cultivator, 1847. p. 340.
Howe's Winter. F273. Syn. of Howe (Win.).									Published in the Cultivator, 1847, p. 340.
Howland. R. Syn. Howland's Winter.									Pleasant and of peculiar flavor, but not valuable.
Howland's Winter. Cult'47,240. Syn. of Howland.	Ger.	rp	s	yg	j	s	g-p	me	Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1843, p. 131; not described.
Hoyerswerda. L. Syn. Green Summer Sugar. Green Summer Sugar. Pear of Hoyerswerda. Sucre de Hoyerswerda. Sucre d'Hoyerswerda. Sucre Noir d'Ere. Sugar of Hoyerswerda. Sucre Vert d'Hoyerswerda. Sugar Pear of Hoyerswerda. Hubert. D'68,678. Syn. of Amanlis.									Grown almost solely for perry. A cross between Châtréau and Anjou. Originated at Whittby, Ontario.
Hubert. R. Syn. Saint Hubert Rousselet.	Eng. Can.	ovate obtp	m l	gru yrb	j	s	g	ml	In the trial orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Huffcap. Pr209. GenF'37,278. CGenX 239. Syn. Herefordshire Huffcap.									Originated by Mr. Johnnot, at Salem, Mass.
Huggard. R. Syn. Huggard's Seedling.	Mass.	obtp	m	gyru	jm	v	vg	me	Originated in 1804 in the town of Swansea, Mass.
Huggard's Seedling. CanH'99,511. Syn. of Huggard.	Mass.	r	m	yr	cog	s	g	m	Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1885, p. 146.
Hugo. R. Syn. Victor Hugo.									Raised by Governor Edwards, of New Haven, Conn.
Huquenot. D'45,394, '57,575, '69,786. APC'50,11. MagoffH'51,263. A'54,238. E'54,396, '56,422. F273. T'75,540, '85,564.	Mass.								Cultivated at Oswego, N. Y.
Hull. MagoffH'43,432, '44,211. MassH'43,44,47, '46,101. D'45,394, '57,575, '69,786. Cole 161. B'51,317. Hov1,5. E'54,372, '59,391. H166. F273. AgR'58,426. A'62,68. T'75,276, '85,294, '97,472.	Mass.	obtp	m	gyru	jm	v	vg	me	A valuable culinary variety.
Hultem. R. Syn. Van Hultem.									
Humboldt's Butterbirne. Dep155. Syn. of Rose.	Conn.								
Humburg. MagoffH'40,43.	N. Y.	r	m	yb	bjmg	s	g	m	
Hungerford. L. Syn. Hungerford's Oswego.	Am.	obl	m	yg	co	s			
Hungerford's Oswego. D'69,786. Syn. of Hungerford.									
Hunt. L. Syn. Hunt's Connecticut.									
Hunt's Connecticut. M'44,91, '47,93. MagoffH'46,305. A'54,238. D'57,575, '69,786. T'75,540, '85,564, '97,705. Syn. of Hunt.									
Hunter. D'69,735. Syn. of Chasseurs.									
Huntingdon. D'69,707. Syn. of Lammus.									

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Huntington. Hort'58,690, '57,113. A'56,197. MagoffH'57,111. D'57,511, '60,786. F'73. E'56,301. GenIX,191. T'75,284, '85,302, '97,476.	N. Y.	rob	ms	ycru	jtrub	sv	vg	me	Originated at New Rochelle, N. Y. Brought to notice by S. F. Carpenter.
Huron. Hort'58,184. Hof. D'60,855. Syn. of Sheldon.		obp	m	gy	jm	s		me	In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Hutcherson. EFABC'00. CanExpR'03,420.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Hutlin. R. Syn. Madame Hutin.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Hay. R. Syn. Delices de Huy.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Huyche's Bergamot. MagoffH'58,276. D'60,787. EFABC'00. Syn. of Huyche Prince.	Eng.	rov	l	ycru	dunj	v		l	Originated by Rev. John Huyche, of Clythedon, England.
Huyche Prince. L. Syna. Huyche's Bergamot, Huyche's Prince of Wales.									
Huyche's Prince Consort. Hort'67,124. D'66,786. T'75,549, '85,564, '97,705. Syn. of Consort.									
Huyche's Prince of Wales. Hort'67,124. D'66,787. A'71,55. Syn. of Huyche Prince.	Eng.	obl	m	ycru	gmj	a		m	Originated by Rev. John Huyche, of Clythedon, England.
Huyche Princess. L. Syna. Huyche's Princess of Wales, Princess of Wales.									
Huyche's Princess of Wales. Hort'67,124. D'66,787. Syn. of Huyche Princess.	Eng.	ovp	m	ynu	jm	v	g-vg		Originated by Rev. John Huyche, of Clythedon, England.
Huyche Victoria. L. Syn. Huyche's Victoria.									
Huyche's Victoria. Hort'67,124. A'JoffH'111,112,VII,182. AHortA'98,80, '98,79,70. T'7. D'69,787. Agr'75,378. Syn. of Huyche Victoria.									
Hysclath. EFABC'00.	Eng.							vi	In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Ice Pear. T'87. D'69,877. Syn. of Virgouleuse.									
Isckworth. K'32,194, '41,162.	Eng.					m			Originated by Thomas Andrew Knight. Sent to America in 1832.
Idaho. HAJ'87, '88,14. Agr'88,572. A'89,169. CanH'96,2, '94,33. AoffH'89,103,151. Wnt'33,113,41. IHH'90,117, '92,172, '94,137. N283. AHM249. T'97,477. Syna. Lindsey, Muly.	Idaho	r	l	y	bm		vg		Formally introduced in 1899. See Annals of Horticulture, 1899, p. 130.
Immense. L. Syn. Immense Bis d'Ete.									Not described.
Immense Bis d'Ete. K'41,170. MagoffH'42,250. Syn. of Immense.									
Imperatrice. D'69,829. Syn. of Passe Colmar.									
Imperatrice d'Ete. MagoffH'43,131. K'41,130.									
Imperatrice de France. Pri33. GenF'83,196. K'41,135. D'45,396, '57,438, '60,761. Hov'151. E'54,324, '59,337. F210,280. Agr'62,184. T'75,549, '85,564, '97,705. Syn. of Flemish.									Classed as an "outcast" by Kenrick, 1841, p. 130.
Imperatrice de la France. K'32,172. Syn. of Flemish.									
Imperial. DomEncIV,185. GarCal587. SW. Pri16. D'69,822. Syn. of Oak-Leaf.									

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Jeannot le Bon</i> . Gen F'33,196. D'45,357, '57,471, '60,710. E'54,350, '59,360. F'277. Syn. of Brown.									
<i>Jeannot of Normandy</i> . Fr'40. Syn. of Brown.	For								
<i>Jeune</i> . L. Syn. Saint Isidore.	N. Y.	rp	m	yr	gjm	sp	g	m	Published by Field, p. 282; not described at New Utrecht, Long Island, N. Y.
<i>Island</i> . Hort'58,221, '72,130. A'58,196, '62,117. F'273. E'59,392									
<i>Italian Rich Field</i> . Pr'14. Syn. of Italie.									
<i>Italie</i> . L. Syn. Champagne Riche d'Italie, Italian Rich Field, Riche d'Italie.	Conn	ovobsp	ml	g	co	g	g	me	Originated with Dr. Ell Ives, of New Haven, Conn.
<i>Ives</i> . A'58,92. Syn. Ives' Pear.	Conn	obtp	m	gbr	jn	a	g	me	Originated with Dr. Ell Ives, of New Haven, Conn.
<i>Ives August</i> . L. Syn. Ives' August.	Conn								Originated with Dr. Ell Ives, of New Haven, Conn.
<i>Ives August</i> . D'60,788. Syn. of Ives August.									
<i>Ives Bergamot</i> . T'75,549, '85,564, '97,705. Syn. Ives' Bergamotte.	Conn								
<i>Ives' Bergamot</i> . Fr'74. Gen F'33,196, '37,277. Hov'1,77. E'54,369. F'273,277. Syn. of Gansel Bergamot.									
<i>Ives' Bergamot</i> . D'45,366, '57,457, '69,769. Hov'1,77. E'54,369, '59,384. Syn. of Gansel Bergamot.									
<i>Ives' Bergamotte</i> . D'57,512, '69,788. E'59,392. Syn. of Ives Bergamot.									
<i>Ives' Pear</i> . D'57,512, '69,788. F'273. E'59,392. T'75,549, '85,564, '97,705. Syn. of Ives.	Conn	r	ms	gyc	cogjm	sp	g	me	Originated with Dr. Ell Ives, of New Haven, Conn.
<i>Ives Seedling</i> . L. Syn. Ives' Seedling.									
<i>Ives' Seedling</i> . D'57,512, '69,789. F'273. E'59,392. T'75,549, '85,564, '97,705. Syn. of Ives Seedling.									
<i>Ives Virgalleu</i> . L. Syn. Ives' Virgalleu.	Conn	ap	ms	gc	cogjm	av	g	m	Originated with Dr. Ell Ives, of New Haven, Conn.
<i>Ives' Virgalleu</i> . D'57,512, '69,789. F'273. E'59,392. T'75,549, '85,564, '97,705. Syn. of Ives Virgalleu.									
<i>Ives Winter</i> . L. Syn. Ives' Winter.	Conn	p	m	yr	cog			l	Originated with Dr. Ell Ives, of New Haven, Conn.
<i>Ives' Winter</i> . D'57,515, '69,789. F'273. T'75,549, '85,564, '97,705. Syn. of Ives Winter.									
<i>Ives' Yale</i> . D'69,789. Syn. of Yale.									
<i>Iselles</i> . R. Syn. Belle d'Iselles.			l	sy	m	p		l	Published by Magazine of Horticulture, 1890, p. 218. May be in the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>I. X. L. EFABC'00</i>	N. H.	obop	m	yr	j	v	g-vg	me	A native of New Hampshire.
<i>Jackman's Melting</i> . M'98,79, '44, 57. D'45,390, '57,576, '69, 794. E'54,374, '59,394. T'75, 549, '85,564, '97,705. Syn. of King (Edw.).									
<i>Jackman</i> . D'57,512, '69,789. F'273. E'59,392. T'75,549, '85,564, '97,705. A'62,110. Syn. of Jackson (of N. H.).									

[illegible]

Name	Origin	Year	Color	Flower	Fruit	Seed	Other	Remarks
<i>Jargonelle</i> (of the English). K'41,118. D'45,337, '57,514. E'54,373, '59,393. Syn. of <i>Jargonelle</i> (Eng.).								Exhibited at meeting of Massachusetts Horticultural Society, 1845, by Robert Manning.
<i>Jargonelle</i> (of the French). K'32,133, '41,119. D'45,338, '57,514. A'54,230. Syn. of <i>Jargonelle</i> (Fr.).								
<i>Jasmin</i> . K'41,121. Syn. of <i>Frangipane</i> .								
<i>Javardel</i> . MassH'45,88.								
<i>Jalousy</i> . Pr.67. Syn. of <i>Jalousie</i> (Belg.).								
<i>Jean Baptiste Bitor</i> . D'66,780. Syn. of <i>Baptiste</i> .								
<i>Jeune de Witte</i> . MagofH'41,286, '45,372, '54,138. K'41,162. MassH'45,88. E'54,373, '59,393. D'57,515, '69,791. H'168. A'54,161, '62,086. T'75,552, '85,564, '97,484. Syn. of <i>Witte</i> .								
<i>Jefferson</i> . D'66,791. PaFS'71,64. Hort'72,130,167. A'73,119,75, '58,150,154, '77,142. (Mass. Ala.)								Origin in dispute; Downing says Mississippi.
<i>John</i> . D'66,786. Syn. of <i>Rance</i> .								
<i>Jersey</i> . D'54,381. '59,410. Syn. of <i>Rehangel</i> .								
<i>Jersey Orange</i> . H'168. MagofH'53,337, '62,149,161. E'54,373, '59,393. D'57,515, '69,791. Agr'36,397. H'168. T'75,549. Syn. of <i>Gratioli</i> .								
<i>Jeschil</i> . L. Syn. <i>Jeschil Armud</i> .								
<i>Jeschil Armud</i> . K'41,133. MagofH'43,126. Syn. of <i>Jeschil</i> .								
<i>Jesuit</i> . D'66,798. Syn. of <i>Julive</i> .								
<i>Jilg</i> . D'45,436, '57,574, '69,772. E'54,385, '59,422. Syn. of <i>Glogil</i> .								
<i>Joachim</i> . R. Syn. St. <i>Joachim</i> .								
<i>Joanet</i> . L. Syns. <i>Amire Joanet</i> , <i>Amire Johannet</i> , <i>Archduc d'Ete</i> (erroneously) <i>Joanette</i> , <i>Petit Johannet</i> , <i>Pera de San Juan</i> , <i>Petit St. Jean</i> , <i>St. Jean</i> , <i>St. John</i> , <i>St. John's Pear</i> .								
<i>Joanet</i> . Pr.6. K'32,131. Syn. of <i>Harvest</i> .								
<i>Joannelle</i> . Pr.9. E'54,386, '59,581. Syn. of <i>Harvest</i> .								
<i>Joannelle</i> . Pr.9. D'45,330, '57,450, '69,658. T'75,549, '85,565, '97,706. IIIH'84,82. Syn. of <i>Joanet</i> .								
<i>Jodolene</i> . L. Bulb. Syn. <i>Triomphe de Jodoigne</i> .								
<i>Jodolene</i> (Delices). L. Syn. <i>Delices de Jodoigne</i> .								
<i>John</i> . MagofH'38,466, '49,443. MassH'43-5.								
<i>John</i> . D'45,443, '57,578, '69,815. E'54,387, '59,423. F'281. Syn. of <i>Messire</i> .								
<i>John Cotton</i> . MassH'62,32, '65,44, '66,45.								
<i>John Griffith</i> . D'66,791. Syn. of <i>Griffith</i> .								
<i>John Moutich</i> . A'54,230. F'281.								
<i>John Williams</i> . A'73,111, '75,37,136.								
<i>Joheanot</i> . Pr.46. K'32,177. MagofH'37,65, '47,484. M'38,74, '44,58, '47,61. D'45,395, '57,515, '69,791. F'51,306. E'54,373, '59,393. H'168. Agr'56,366. F'273. A'62,68. A'Joiff'97,42. T'75,276, '85,294, '97,472. Syn. <i>Franklin</i> .								
<i>Joigneaux</i> . R. Syn. <i>Pierre Joigneaux</i> .								
<i>Jolaville</i> . L. Syn. <i>Prince de Jolaville</i> .								

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Orign.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Katana</i> . Pr20. D'45,343, '57,581, '69,846. E'54,394, '59,421. F281. Syn. of Early Roussellet.									
<i>Kazenkop</i> . D'45,432, '57,568, '69,716. EFA'BC'00. CanExFR'02,390. Syn. of Catillac.									
<i>Kede Hall Beurrs</i> . D'69,861. Syn. of Styrian.									
<i>Keepsake</i> . L. IIIH'97,213. Syns. Father's Keepsake, Oicovska.	Rus.?								Introduced from Russia in 1882; not described.
<i>Kieffer</i> . Dapl'79. IndH'83,47. PaB18. Ila254. Iah'79,304,401. T'85,565, '97,706. N233. Syn. of Kieffer.									
<i>Kieffer's Hybrid</i> . Dapl'79. IndH'78,64. WNYH'70,53. NJH'82,11, '83,101,110, '86, 86, '91,79. Ha254. PaB18. Syn. of Kieffer.		p	m	ygru	jm	s		m	Described by Lindley.
<i>Kelser</i> . K32,178. D'69,794. Syn. Kelser.		robo	m	gyru	mb	avp		vi	Originated by Wm. Kelsey, of Columbus, Ohio.
<i>Kelzer</i> . Pr203. Syn. of Kelser.	Ohio								Cultivated by Silas Wharton in 1824.
<i>Kelsey</i> . Hort'68,383. AHortA'69,79. D'69,794									Originated by Gen. Bidwell, at Rancho Chico, Cal.
<i>Kemper</i> . SW.....									Originated by Dr. John Van Mons; described and introduced in 1846.
<i>Keenedy</i> . WnI,332,II,341. CalSBotH'91,74. JB'93. A'95,68	Cal	robl	sm	ru	tg	s		m	Originated Dr. John Van Mons. Published by Magazine of Horti- culture, 1842, p.256; not described.
<i>Kennes</i> . L. T'97,461. Syn. Beurrs Kennes	Belg	rp	m	gyru	bjm	sp		m	Shown by S. S. Tipton at meeting of Kansas Horticultural So- ciety, September, 1877.
<i>Kenrick</i> . L. T'97,703. Syns. Buerr Kenrick, No. 1599 of Van Mons	Fl	p	m	gyru	lb	s	p	me	Described by Michigan Experi- ment Station Bulletin 187, p.74.
<i>Kent. L.</i> Syn. Beurrs de Kent									Originated at McGregor, Iowa. Published by Field, p.276; not de- scribed.
<i>Kentish Beauty</i> . KanI'77,237									Not described.
<i>Kentucky</i> . MichSB27. MichBI'77,187,194. Syns. Kentucky Home, Old Kentucky Home (of Stark Co.)			s	gy			p	me	In the trial orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Kentucky Home</i> . H'89,91,20. Syn. of Kentucky									Raised by Peter Kieffer, Roxbury, near Philadelphia, Pa.
<i>Kenyon</i> . Iah'04,823,824	Iowa.								
<i>Kernel</i> . R. Syn. Belle de Bruxelles Without Kernel	For.								
<i>Kestotez</i> . D'69,678. Syn. of Amanlis									
<i>Ketterd</i> . Mag of H'43,131									
<i>Keyports</i> . D'68,771. Syn. of General Taylor									
<i>Kharlof</i> . R. Syn. Lemon Kharlof									
<i>Kieffer</i> . GarM'80,49. B'93,371. Agr'86,294, '90,99, '91,129, 94,154. WnI,328,II,338, 111,290. Bul'8. Syns. Kieffer, Kieffer's Hybrid. Kieffer's Hybrid.		rp	ml	yru	cogd		p	m	
<i>Kieffer's Hybrid</i> . WNYH'79,53. NJH'82,11, '83,101,110, '86, '86, '91,79. HB'03,136. Syn. of Kieffer.	Pa								
<i>Kilmer</i> . D'66,823. Syn. of Onondaga									

Kirland. MacroH'43,131 Kincald. 11HF92,172. BBL. Syn. Rogers	N. Y.	rob obtp	ms l	gb gru	com j	a ss	g g	m m	Not described In trial collection of Benjamin Buckman, Farmingdale, Ill. Originated at Oswego, N. Y. In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
King. D'69,705. FGAO'07,533. Syn. King's Seedling King Charles. CanExR'01,547. Syn. King Charles of Wurtemberg King Charles of Wurtemberg. EFABC'00. Syn. of King Charles King (Edw.). L. Syns. Jackman's Melting, King Edward's		p	l	yr	bm		vg	m	Received from London (Eng) Horticultural Society about 1840 In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
King Edward. EFABC'00									
King Edward's. K'41,148. D'45,366, '57,576, '69,704. Cole163. F'54,374, '59,394. H170 F'81. T'75,649, '85,565, '97,706. Syn. of King (Edw.) King Karl. SBros. BBL									In the trial orchard of Benjamin Buckman, Farmingdale, Ill. Published by the Cultivator, 1847, p. 340.
King Louis. R. Syn. Great King Lewis									
King of Summer (erroneously). Pr24. Syn. of Archduke King of Summer. D'69,843. Syn. of Summer King King of Wurtemberg. F'242. D'69,767. Syn. of Wurtemberg King Seedling. L. Syn. King's Seedling King's Seedling. Cult'50,380. Syn. of King King's Seedling. D'57,576, '69,705. F'273. T'75,649, '85,565, '97,706. Syn. of King Seedling. Kingsessing. MacroH'47,460, '53,453,516. Wg71. MassH'53,21. Agr'54,245. D'57, 517, '69,705. H169. F'271. A'62,68. Hort'53,371. CGenIX,126. T'75,277, '85,295, '97,472. B'89,382. Syns. Leech's Kingsessing. Leech's Kingsessing. King Sobieski. EFABC'00. CanExR'01,546. Syn. of Sobieski Kipp. R. Syn. Kipp's Seedling	Pa	obtp	l	gy	cogb jm	sp	g-vg	me	Originated in the family cemetery of Isaac Leech, near Philadel- phia, Pa. In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Kipp's Seedling. EFABC'00. Syn. of Kipp Kirkland. BBL	Ohio	obtp	ms	yeru	mj	sp	vg	me	Being tested by Benjamin Buck- man, Farmingdale, Ill. Raised by H. T. Kirkland, of Poland, Ohio. Exhibited at New York State Fair, 1948. See Transactions New York Agri- cultural Society, 1946, p. 106.
Kirkland. MacroH'50,112, '53,168. Hort'50,476, '54,515, '62,496, '72,50. Cult'50,109. B'51,317, '83,371. F'54,320, '59,341. D'57,440, '69,705. H176. A'62,68. Agr'65,189. T'75,277, '85,295, '97,472. Syns. Beurre Kirkland, Hadley, Kirkland's Beurre, Kir- land's Butter, Kirkland's Seckel, Kirkland's Seedling, Seedling Seckel.									
Kirkland's Beurre. E'54,329, '59,341. D'57,440, '69,705. Agr'65,189. Syn. of Kir- land. Kirkland's Butter. CGenVIII,302. Syn. of Kirkland Kirkland's Seckel. MacroH'50,112. E'54,329, '59,341. Agr'56,331. D'57,440, '69,705. K'62,68. T'75,277, '85,295, '97,472. Syn. of Kirkland Kirkland's Seedling. CGenVIII,302. B'54,320, '59,341. Syn. of Kirkland CGenVIII,302. Agr'65,189. Syn. of Kirkland. Kissling Point. IndH'90,158.									Found in Australia by Prof. F. M. Wester; not described Cultivated at the Jardin des Plantes, Paris, France.
Kitchen. L. Syns. Kitchen Pear, Poire de Cuisine, Poire de Cuisine de Varin Kitchen Pear. P'98. Syn. of Kitchen Kleac. R. Syn. Pfalzgräfin Kleine				ru	a			ml	In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.

Korsna. L. Syn. Korsun's Bergamot.	Rus.?								Introduced from Russia in 1862.
Korsun's Bergamot. Gb. Syn. of Korsun.	Rus.?								Introduced from Russia in 1862.
Kostitschka. Gb. Syn. Kostotitschka.	Belg.?								
Koserscher. D'99,796. Syn. of Koperscher.	{FF.}	obtp	1	ygb	dmb	sv	g	m	
Kosuth. L. T'97,706. Syn. Deurre Kosuth.	Rus.	m					vg	me	Rejected by the Congress of Fruit Growers, 1849.
Kostitschka. Gb. Syn. of Kostitschka.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Kozlot. CanH'04,29.									Received from C. F. Kraus, of New York, in 1895.
Krascha. FGAO'92,108. Syn. of Long.									Received from C. F. Kraus, of New York, in 1895.
Krascha. FGAO'01,12. Syn. of Panna.									Not described.
Kratish. EFABC'00. Syn. Beurre Von Kratish.									Tree very hardy at the North.
A'rous No. 18. MichSBZ7. MichB205.									
Kraus No. 41. MichSBZ7. MichB187,194.	Rus.?								
Kraskaya. R. Syn. Kriskaya Victoriana.	Rus.?								
Aristana Victoriana. FGAO'89,3. Syn. of Kriskaya.	Rus.						g		
Krivonogof. CanH'94,29.									
Kronprinz Ferdinand. K'41,161. D'45,437,57,503,69,773. Hov1,5. F280. Syn. of Glout Moreau.									
Kronprinz Von Oestreich. D'45,437,57,503,69,773. Hov1,5. Syn. of Glout Moreau.									
Kruell's Winter. MoH'90,332. AofH'90,302. Syn. of Kruell.									
Kruell. MoH'90,36,112,92,233,93,224,276,70,574,01,238. A'91,124. AofH'91,194.	Mo.							1	Introduced in 1891 by Mr. Mal-linckrodt, of Missouri.
BBL. OH'01,29. IaH'96,161,99,86. IIIH'96,187. FESofO'01,53. AHM252. SBros. T'97,706. Syns. Kruell's Winter, Kruell's Winter, Kuell, Kull.									
Kruell's Winter. MoH'88,330,98,141,273. IIIH'90,117. Syn. of Kruell.	Rus.								Introduced from Russia in 1879. Exhibited by Robert Manning in 1847.
Krupnyanka. Gb.									
Krenetsten. MagofH'47,465.									
Kuang-ti. IaH'91,376. Syn. of Strawberry.									
Kuall. MoH'96,38. Syn. of Kruell.									
Kull. ArizB15. Syn. of Kruell.									
Kumps. L. Syn. Therese Kumps.									
Kursk. L. Syns. Bergamot Kursti, Kursk Bergamot.	Belg.	oblp	m	ybru	dmj	svp		m	Introduced in 1847.
Kurs Kaga. IIIH'96,178. Syn. of Kurskaya.	Rus.								Introduced from Russia in 1879.
Kurskaya. Gb. IaB3. NebH'90,130. MinH'91,175. IaH'93,198,94,170. N283.	Rus.								Introduced from Russia in 1879.
Syns. Gliva Kurskaya, Kursk Kaga.									
Kursk Bergamot. Gb. Syn. of Kursk.									Not described.
Kvostitchinskala. FGAO'02,97.	Rus.								
L'Archiduc d'Et. C182. K'32,136,41,133. GenF'37,277. Syn. of Juliette.									
La Belle de Flanders. P133. K'32,172,41,135. GenF'33,196. Hov1,51. Syn. of Flemish.									
La Belle Euth. CanExFR'96,392. EFABC'00.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
La Beurre. K'32,135. Syn. of Brown.									
La Bonne Malinaise. E'94,36. F283. D'99,884. Syn. of Winter Nells.									
La Bonne Malinaise. K'32,196,41,167. P132. GenF'33,197. D'45,430,57,447. Hov-1,16. E'94,36,56,356. Agr'62,150. Syn. of Winter Nells.									

	For.	p ohr	m m	gyru ygru	bjm bgj	v ap	s-vg g	m m	
Zammas (of the Scotch). D'69,729. Syn. of Crawford. Lamortiere. E'54,374,59,805. Syn. General des Lamortieres. La Motte Blanc de Jersey. Bazi du la Motte, Baz de la Motte, Beurre Blanc de Jersey. Bazi du la Motte, Baz de la Motte, Craasane Berga- mot (erroneously). D'69,731. Wilding's on Motte. La Moulinoise. D'69,797. Lamy. L. Syns. Beurre Curte, Beurre Curlet, Beurre Cuitet, Beurre Quitelet, Bis Curlet, Comte de Lamy, Comte de Lamy, Comte Lamay, Dingler, Henri Van Mons (erroneously), Louis Bosc, Marie Louise Nove, Marie Louise (the Second). Lancaster. MassH'75,119,'79,160.									Tree very vigorous and produc- tive.
Lancelot. L. Syn. Adele Lancelot. Landgraft. BBL.	Belg.	p	ml	gyr			p	m	Originated with T. S. Lancaster, at Gloucester, Mass.
Landry Wilding. Pr124. D'69,753. Syn. of Echasserie. Langbarne. FG A50,92,108. Syn. of Long. Langeller. Cult 53,344. CGentl 1,262. T'S8,305,97,480. Buick's. AHM252. Syns I. of Jer. Beurre Langeller, Langeller's Beurre, Langeller's Butter. Langeller's Beurre. MagorH'46,336,55,187. D'69,693. Syn. of Langeller. Langeller's Victoria. E'54,312. Syn. of Langeller. Lansac. PhilC'62,173. Syn. of Glout Moreau. Lansie. Dauphin. D'69,733. Syn. of MagorH'44,131,30,296. A'54,239. D'69,797. Suisse. Dauphin. D'69,733. Syn. of MagorH'44,131,30,296. A'54,239. D'69,797. La Petite. AGR'54,243. La Princeess. K'32,130. Gen F'37,277. Syn. of Muscat Robert. La Reine. D'69,553. Syn. of Romatin. La Reine d'Orleans. Syn. of Romatin. La Reine d'Orleans. DomEstVask. Syn. of Winter Queen. Large Catharine. SW. [Perhaps the same as Early Rousselet]. Large Cordelier. Pr149. Syn. of Pound. Large Crimson. Pr19. Syn. of Crimson. Large Duchess. AlaB30.	I. of Jer.	obtp	m	ygru	jmg	v	vg	l	Raised by M. Langeller on the Island of Jersey.
Large Hatueaux of the forest. Pr18. Syn. of Gros Hasliveau. Large Muscadet. Pr23. Syn. Grosse Muscadelle. Large Oblong. Pr89. Syn. Grosse Alougee.	Fr.	t	s	gru	co	sa	e	m	Classed with oriental varieties by Prof. J. S. Newman.
Large Round Blanquet. Pr15. D'69,797. Syn. of Round Blanquet. Large Rousselet. Pr21. E'54,360,59,424. D'69,843. Syn. of Summer King. Large Seckel. D'45,355,57,567,69,766. E'54,391,59,388. Syn. of Blecker. Large Sugar. GB. OH'80,75. Syn. Zuckerbirne Grosse. Large Sugar (of some). CHSS. Pr60. D'45,346,57,583,69,863. H177. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Sum.). Large Sugar Pear. SW. [This may be Bon Chretien (Sum.)]. Large Summer Bergamot. D'57,355,69,362. H171. Syn. of Summer Bergamot (La B6). Large Swan's Egg. Pr147. D'69,779. Syn. of Harrison. Larissa. MagorH'53,517.	Rus.			ey					Introduced from Russia in 1852.
	Pa.		s						Exhibited by Mr. Ladd, of Phila- delphia at meeting of Pennsyl- vania Horticultural Society, 1853.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Lasalle</i> . R. Syn. Cavalier de La Salle									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>La Savonnette</i> . D'69,797. Syn. of Savory									
<i>La Savonnette</i> . DomEnciv 186. Syn. of Savory									
<i>Las Canas</i> . K 41,170. MagoffH'40,197. B'51,307. Hov1,71. E'54,374, 59,395. Hort- '55,193. D'57,518, 69,798. H17L. T'75,238, 55,306, 97,480. Syn. of Canas.									This may be "Canas," "Las Canas" of Downing, 1869, p. 788.
<i>Las Cassas</i> . MagoffH'42,240.									
<i>La Soeur Gregoire</i> . D'69,798. Syn. of Soeur									
<i>La Souverain</i> . P'213. Syn. of Passe Colmar									
<i>Laich</i> . MagoffH'54,561. Hort'54,493. A'56,197. D'57,534, 69,832. T'75,550, 85,565, '97,707. Syn. of Philadelphia.									
<i>Late Bartlett</i> . MoH'96,72. BBL. Syn. of Winter Bartlett.									
<i>Late Bergamot</i> . P'89. Syn. of Colmar									
<i>Late Catherine</i> . SW. P'720. E'54,399, 59,424. D'69,846. Syn. of Rheims.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C. Exhibited by Robert Manning in 1847.
<i>Late Crassane</i> . EFABC'00									
<i>Late Deschamps</i> . MassH'47,69									
<i>Late Gansel</i> . Hort'40,41. Syn. of Gansel Late									
<i>Late Gansel's Bergamot</i> . Hort'40,41. Syn. of Gansel Late									
<i>Late Green</i> . EFABC'00									
<i>Late Van Mons</i> . Cult'39,86	Mass								
<i>Late Virgatica</i> . P'86. Syn. of Gray Doyenne									
<i>Lathrop</i> . R. Syn. Lathrop's No. 1									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C. Not described.
<i>Lathrop's No. 1</i> . OH'85,209. Syn. of Lathrop	For.								Mentioned by T. T. Lyon in Transactions Ohio Horticultural Society, 1886, p. 206.
<i>Lathrop's No. 1</i> . Syn. Gros Lativeau	For.								Published by Field, p. 280; not described.
<i>Launay</i> . L. Syn. Beurre de Launay	For.								Published by Field, p. 278; not described.
<i>Laure de Olympe</i> . MagoffH'52,300, 54,84, 55,517. WHERII'50. MassH'53,19. Hort- '54,80. D'57,518, 69,798. CGEX'386. Cult'58,12. E'69,383. F'281. T'73,277, 86, 281, 97,477. Syn. of Olympe.									This may be a misprint for Lawrence.
<i>Laurence</i> . MagoffH'43,131. Agr'54,245									
<i>Laurent's Summer</i> . Dap'55. A'75,68. Syn. of Jargonelle (Eng.)									
<i>Laurentine</i> . D'69,793. Syn. of Jargonelle (Fr.)									
<i>Laval</i> . L. Syn. Blanc-per-ne, Leon le Clerc, Leon le Clerc de Laval, Leon le Clerc Laval.	Belg.	obop	i	yrro	jer	s	g	vi	Raised by Dr. John Van Mons, but very different from Leclerc (Van M.).

										Rejected by Congress of Fruit Growers, 1849.
Lavalle. A'54,239										
La Vendalle. K'32,178,41,168. Syn. of Vanstalle.										
La Violante d'Alpe. Fr.60. Syn. of Orange Striped.										
La Virpalade. Fr.60,877. Syn. of Virgoulense.										
Laville. L. Syn. Fondante de Laville.	For.									
Lavrence. K'41,109. MagOH'44,36,46,432. M'44,92,47,94. D'45,442,57,440,69,798. A'10,173. E'31,310,83,376. W'671. H'or'11,3. M'as'61,43,4,43,47. W'HRIV,446. E'5,430,59,340. T'75,288,58,366,97,480. S'91. B'1290.	N. Y.	obop	m	ynu	jm	sp	vg-b	1		Published by Field, p. 280: not described.
Lavry. GarM'83,144,283. MichH'86,333. OH'86,122. IIIH'86,180. WnII,335,III,258. B'127,229. N'JH'93,77. Syn. Comet.	N. Y.		1	rb			p	ve		Produced fruit in 1840. See Magazine of Horticulture, 1844, p. 212.
Laxton. R. Syn. Green Pear of Laxton.										Recommended for early and near-by markets.
Leach's Kingessing. MassH'47,90. Syn. of Kingessing.										Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1843, p. 131.
Lebanon. D'99,833. T'75,550,85,565,97,707. Syn. of Pinneo.										
Le Beurre. Fr.46. D'60,745. Syn. of Gray Doyenne.										
Le Briton. MagOH'100,506. D'60,798. Syn. of Breton.										
Le Brun. D'60,799. Syn. Beurre Lebrun.	Fr.	oblp	m	yb	mj	sp		m		
Lecheffrand. Fr.31. K'32,127,41,119. Syn. of Cassiolette.										
Lecheffrand. Fr.31. Syn. of Cassiolette.	Fr.	robtp	m	gyru	jm	sv	g-vg	m		Originated in Troy, France.
Le Clerc (Amelie). L. Syn. Amelie Le Clerc.										
Leclerc (Angelique). L. Syn. Angelique Leclerc.	Fr.	oblp	ml	gyr	comjg	sp		ml		Raised by Dr. Leon Leclerc, of Laval, France.
Le Clerc (Beurre). L. Syn. Beurre Leon Le Clerc.	Fr.	robip	ml	ynu	bjm	sp	vg	m		Raised by Dr. Leon Leclerc, of Laval, France.
Leclerc (Frederick). L. Syn. Frederick Leclerc.	Fr.	oblp	ml	gyru	djm	sp		ml		
Le Clerc (Leon). L. Syn. Leon Le Clerc, Louis Le Clerc Epineux.	Fr.	obo	ml	gyru	co		g	1		Described by L. E. Berckmans. Named for Dr. Le Clerc.
Le Clerc (Van Mons). L. Syn. Celestin, Louise Bonne de Boulogne, Poire de Boulogne, Van Mons Leon Le Clerc.	Fr.	obl	1	gyru	bm	s	g-vg	m		A culinary variety. Originated with Dr. Leon Le Clerc, of Laval, France.
Le Clercq (Lucien). L. Syn. Lucien Leclercq.	Belg.	ovate	m	gru	gm	s		m		Originated with Dr. John Van Mons. Fruited in 1844.
Le Conte. GalH'78,8,29,83,17,84,9,85,45. JalI'79,303. Ind H'79,49. AlaB'108. B'83,371. T'85,565,97,707. GarM'85,283. B'1228. Ha252. WnI,328,II,338,III,260. AH-M253. Syn. Chinese Pear.			1	y			p	me		An oriental hybrid; only valuable at the South.
Le Curie. D'45,448,57,557,60,575. Cult'47,340. HovI,47. AgR'54,296,62,189. E'54,344,99,364. H'172. D'83,577. T'75,550,85,566,97,707. M'VH'83,126. Syn. of Vicar.										
Le Czar. EFABC'00. Syn. Le Czar No. 36.										In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Le Czar No. 36. CanExFR'96,136. Syn. of Le Czar.										In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Ledeberg. R. Syn. Fondante de Ledeborg.										Rejected by the Congress of Fruit Growers, 1849.
Lederbime. MassH'45,89. MagOH'50,296. A'54,239.										In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Ledocte. R. Syn. Henri Ledocte.										Originated at Salem, Mass. Described by Elliott.
Lee. D'60,799. Syn. Lee's Seedling.	Mass.	rov	sm	grub	joo		p	me		
L'Echaserie. C'205. Pr124. K'32,144. H'171. D'60,753. Syn. of Echaserie.										

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origm.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Lassalle. R. Syn. Cavalier de La Salle.....									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>La Savoureuse.</i> D'68,797. Syn. of Savory.....									
<i>La Savoureuse.</i> DomEncl'186. Syn. of Savory.....									
<i>Las Canas.</i> K'41,170. MagoH'40,197. B'51,307. Hov1,71. E'54,374, '56,365. Hort-'55,193. D'57,518, '69,798. H171. T'76,288, '85,306, '97,480. Syn. of Canas.									This may be "Canas," "Las Canas" of Downing, 1860, p. 798.
<i>Las Casas.</i> MagoH'42,250.....									
<i>La Soeur Gregoire.</i> D'69,798. Syn. of Soeur.....									
<i>La Souverain.</i> P'213. Syn. of Passe Colmar.....									
<i>Lauch.</i> MagoH'54,561. Hort'54,468. A'56,197. D'57,534, '69,822. T'75,550, '85,565, '97,707. Syn. of Philadelphia.....									
<i>Late Bartlett.</i> MoH'96,72. BBL. Syn. of Winter Bartlett.....									
<i>Late Bergamot.</i> P'99. Syn. of Colmar.....									
<i>Late Catherine.</i> SW. P'20. E'54,369, '56,424. D'69,846. Syn. of Rheims.....									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C. Exhibited by Robert Manning in 1847.
<i>Late Crassane.</i> EFABC'00.....									
<i>Late Deschamps.</i> MaseH'47,69.....									
<i>Late Gansel.</i> Hort'49,41. Syn. of Gansel Late.....									
<i>Late Gansel's Bergamot.</i> Hort'49,41. Syn. of Gansel Late.....									
<i>Late Green.</i> EFABC'00.....									
<i>Late Van Mons.</i> Cult'39,66.....	Mass.							me	Mentioned by T. T. Lyon in Transactions Ohio Horticultural Society, 1885, p. 269.
<i>Late Virgouieu.</i> P'96. Syn. of Gray Doyenne.....									
<i>Lathrop.</i> R. Syn. Lathrop's No. 1.....									
<i>Lathrop's No. 1.</i> OH'85,209. Syn. of Lathrop.....	For.								Published by Field, p. 280; not described.
<i>Lattrean.</i> L. Syn. Gros Latrean.....	For.								Published by Field, p. 278; not described.
<i>Launay.</i> L. Syn. Beurre de Launay.....									
<i>Laure de Glymes.</i> MagoH'52,200, '54,54, '55,517. WHR11,580. MaseH'53,19. Hort-'54,80. D'57,518, '69,798. CGenX, 388. Cult'58,12. E'59,363. F281. T'75,277, '85, 295, '97, 472. Syn. of Glymes.....									
<i>Laurence.</i> MagoH'43,131. Agr'54,245.....									This may be a misprint for Laurence.
<i>Lauren's Summer.</i> Dep155. A'75,68. Syn. of Jargonelle (Eng.).....									
<i>Laurentienne.</i> D'98,762. Syn. of Jargonelle (Fr.).....									
<i>Laval.</i> L. Syna. Blanc-per-ne, Leon le Clerc, Leon le Clerc de Laval, Leon le Clerc Laval.....	Belg.	obop	1	yrro	jer	s	g	vi	Raised by Dr. John Van Mons, but very different from Leclerc (Van M.).

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Lech's Kingessing.</i> Hort'48,326. Cole159. B'61,300,'83,382. Agr'54,251. E54, 374, 59,384. D'57,517,'98,785. T'75,550,'55,565,'97,707. Syn. of Kingessing. <i>L'Epergne.</i> Pri'45. K'41,146. Cole159. MagofH'54,469. Syn. of Harvard.		obo	ml	ru	b	p	vg	me	
<i>Lee's Becket.</i> L. Syn. Lee's Seckel. T'75,550,'55,565,'97,707. Syn. of Lee's Seckel.		rov	vl	gb	gmj	vp		m	An old French variety: originated about 1740.
<i>Lee's Seckel.</i> MagofH'54,469. E54,374, 59,384. D'57,517,'98,785. T'75,550,'55,565,'97,707. Syn. of Lee's Seckel.	Fr.								
<i>Leferre.</i> D'98,693. Syn. of Le Fevre (Beurre).		robo	l	gyb	g			m	Possibly identical with Lefevre. Not described. Classed with outcasts by Kenrick.
<i>Leferre (Beurre).</i> L. Syna. Beurre de Mortelontaine, Beurre Le Fevre, Lefevre. FGAofO'93,72.	Fr.								
<i>Leggett.</i> L. Syn. Leggett's.									
<i>Leggett's.</i> K'41,130. Syn. of Leggett.									
<i>Lelon Grimon.</i> AndN'95. Syn. of Grimon.		robo	m	ygru	jm	sp	g	m	Downing said that this is but little known.
<i>Lelma.</i> L. Syn. Felix de Lelm.	Belg.								
<i>L'Incommunicable.</i> P-203. K'32,178. Syn. of Incommunicable.									
<i>L'Incommune.</i> D'98,787. Syn. of Incommune.		oblp	s	gyru	lg	s	g	me	In the trial orchards of Illinois experimental stations.
<i>L'Inconstant.</i> P-203. H'57,301. D'98,788. Syn. of Inconstant.		oblp	ms	gyru		s		m	In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>L'Incommunicable.</i> P-203. Syn. of Incommune.	Belg.?	oblp		gyru	bjm	s	g	m	Not valuable.
<i>Lelapic.</i> IIIH'96,187,204,215.									Received from Belgium, but origin unknown.
<i>Lelapic Radish.</i> EFARC'00. CanExFR'02,379.		obtp	s	gyru	lg	s	g	me	
<i>Le Lectier.</i> AofH'92,277. EFARC'00. CanExFR'05,430.	Belg.?	oblp	ms	gyru		s		m	
<i>Lelleur.</i> L. Syna. Auguste Lelleur, Augustine Lelleur.		oblp		gyru		s		m	
<i>Lelleur (Comte).</i> L. Syna. Comte Lelleur, Frederick Lelleur.	Belg.	p	l	ygru	comj	s	g-vg	me	Introduced from Russia in 1870.
<i>Lemon.</i> Gb. IaB3. IndH'96,82. FGAofO'91,14. MinnH'93,226. IaH'94,170. Syn. Limonaya.	Rus.								Originated by Dr. S. A. Shurtleff, of Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1862.
<i>Lemon (Mass.).</i> MaasH'66,43.	Mass.								In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Lemonay.</i> EFARC'00. CanExFR'05,430.		ap	m	gy	j	s	g	me	
<i>Lemon Kharkoff.</i> EFARC'00. Syn. of Kharkoff.									
<i>Lemonaw.</i> A'56,106,'62,124. Agr'56,380. D'57,519,'98,800. F273. E'56,395.	Mich.?	oblp	m	gyru	bj	p	g	me	Disseminated by Dr. Underwood Adrian, Mich.
<i>Lench.</i> L. Syn. Roussee Lench.		obl	l	gyru	bj	s		vl	Described by Hogg in the Fruit Manual.
<i>Lent.</i> L. Syna. Easter Saint Germain, Lent Saint Germain, Naples, Polre de Naples.		obo	l	g	f		vg		Described by Lindley.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Le Virgoule</i> . Pr67. D'69,877. Syn. of Virgouleuse.									
<i>Lewelling</i> . R. Syn. Lewelling Seckel.									In Benjamin Buckman's collection, Farmingdale, Ill.
<i>Lewelling Seckel</i> . BBL. Syn. of Lewelling.									
<i>Lewis</i> . Tr140. K 32,190, 41,162. MagoffH 38,394, 44,291, 54,530, '60,223. M'38,93, 44,80, 47,70. D'45,441, 57,519, '69,801. Cole171. E'54,375, 59,342. Agr'50,55. F271. T'75,283, 85,311, 97,484. Syn. Roxbury St. Germain.	Mass.	obo	sm	g	cofm	p	g	1	First shown at meeting of Massachusetts Horticultural Society, November, 1829.
<i>Lezais</i> (corronously of the F'rouch). D'69,737. Syn. of Dix.	Ky.		1				g	e	Found in a vacant lot by C. S. Bell, at Lexington, Ky.
<i>Lexington</i> . TVM'96, '99, '00, '02, '94. IIIH'96,187,204, '03,273, '04,223. IaH'99,86, '00,88. BBL. A11M230.									Described by Hogg in the Fruit Manual.
<i>Lezlin</i> . L. Syns. Monsieur le Cure, St. Lezain, Saint Lezin.		p	vl	gyru	cj	s		m	Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1862, p. 474.
<i>Libart</i> . F281. D'69,819. Syn. of Napoleon.									
<i>Libbittent</i> . R. Syn. Bergamot Libbittent Verte.									
<i>Liberalte</i> . Agr'53,282. MagoffH'55,519. D'57,519, '69,801. F281. E'59,395. CGen-XXV'94. T'75,550, '85,565, '97,707.	Belg.	obtp	m	gybru	jm	sp	vg	m	Not described by Field.
<i>Libouttes</i> . L. Syn. Beal Libouttes.	For.							me	Recommended by the German Pomological Society.
<i>Liebart</i> . D'69,802. Syns. Beurre Liebart, Chamoisine.	For.	obip	1	yrnu	cobr	p			
<i>Liegal</i> . R. Syns. Liegal's Winterbirne, Liegal's Winter Butter, Supreme Coloma.	Ger.?			gy	b	p	g	1	
<i>Liegal's Winterbirne</i> . MHSC'82,59. FGAOfO'53,223. Syn. of Liegal.									
<i>Liegal's Winter Butter</i> . FGAOfO'92,111. Syn. of Liegal.									
<i>Lieutenant Polderin</i> . Hort'57,516. 1st. D'69,802. Syn. of Poitevin.									
<i>Lieutenant Poitevin</i> . MagoffH'57,301. D'57,519, '69,802. E'59,396. A'60,158. Mass-H'62,32. T'75,550, '85,565, '97,707. Syn. of Poitevin.									Fruit fine, but tree tender in Canada. Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1843, p. 131.
<i>Lifland</i> . R. Syns. Bere Blanche de Lifland, Bere Verte de Lifland.									
<i>Lillie</i> . R. Syn. Inconnue Lillie.									
<i>Limberville</i> . Ia B3. IaH'85,321. TexB16. NebH'90,130. MeP'99,62,63. Syn. of Thintwig.									
<i>Limon</i> . MagoffH'42,57. D'45,340, '57,520, '69,802. A'54,34, '62,70. Agr'54,283. E'54, 377, '69,396. F281. Hort'58,121. CGenX11,254. T'75,255, '85,273, '97,454. Syns. Bergamotte Louise, Beurre Haggerston, Haggerston, No. 8 of Van Mons, No. 10 Van Mons.	Belg.	obo	sm	yr	bmj	sp	vg	me	Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.
<i>Limonaya</i> . Gb. Syn. of Lemon.									
<i>Limcola</i> . MassH'46,88. MagoffH'90,296. A'54,239.	Mass.?								Exhibited by Robert Manning at meeting of Massachusetts Horticultural Society, 1846, p. 88.
<i>Lincola</i> (Ill.). IIIH'89, '92, '90, 117, '92, 162, '94, 196, 257, 333, '95, 55, 328. AOfH'90,151. A'91, 124, 159. OH'91,45. C(O)HS'91,20. P'96,37. MichH'94,141. IaH'96,155. AHM253. SBros. BBL.	Ill.		1					m	Origin Logan County, Ill., with Mrs. Marie Fleming.

<i>Lincoln Coreless</i> . C(0) HS91.147. A(0)H'92.185. IIIH'94.137. '96.52.178. NJH'93.73. T'97.707. 18K'98.01. F.N.Y.'03.245.	Tenn																			Introduced in 1892 by William Parry and J. S. Collins & Son.
<i>Leadlight</i> . J. 140.48. Gm'F'93.107. D'45.37.57.503. '69.773. Hor'1.5. E'54.325. '59.339. F'50. A'61'62.15. F'97.707. Syn. of Glout Moreau.																				
<i>Lendary</i> . Mel'90.114. Syn. of Idaho.																				
<i>Lints</i> . R. Syn. Capilaumont Lints.																				
<i>Little Bastard Musk</i> . Pr.129. Syn. of Little Muscat.																				
<i>Little Blazer</i> . Pr.17. K'41.18. D'69.802. Syn. of Little Blanquet.																				
<i>Little Blanquet</i> . Pr.17. K'32.128. D'69.802. Syns. Blanche Fleur, Blanquet le Petit, Blanquet Petit, Blanquette Cires, Little Blanquet, Musk Blanquet or Blanquette, Pearl Pear, Petit Blanquet, Petite Blanquette, Poire a la Yerle, Small Blanquet, White Pear.		p	s	yw	br		g	me												
<i>Little Gem</i> . Mich'81. NYC'90. IIIH'92.173.																				
<i>Little Lord</i> . Pr.106. Syn. of Mervelle.																				
<i>Little Muscat</i> . Pr.106. D'45.340. '57.577. '69.802. E'54.397. '59.422. H'172. F'261. T'75.550. '85.565. '97.707. Syns. Chiot, Little Musk, Little Bastard Musk, Muscat Petit, Muscat Robert, Petit Muscat, Petit Musk, Primitive, Sept-en-gueule, Supreme.	Fr.	t	vs	yr	br	sp	g	ve												From Vermont; not described.
<i>Little Musk</i> . Gar'Cal.57. C177. Pr.10. K'32.129. '41.117. D'45.340. '57.577. '69.802. E'54.397. '59.422. F'281. T'75.550. '85.565. '97.707. Syn. of Little Muscat.																				
<i>Little Swan's Egg</i> . D'45.399. E'54.397. '59.423. Syn. of Swan Egg.																				
<i>Livingston</i> . L. Syn. Livingston Virgaurea.	N.Y.?	robo	m	gyru	jm	s	g	me												Grown along the Hudson River, but origin uncertain.
<i>Livingston Virgaurea</i> . D'69.803. Syn. of Livingston.	Rus.?																			Seedling of White Doyenne; hardy and promising.
<i>Livronle</i> . R. Syn. Beurre blanc de Livronle.																				A kitchen pear; not described.
<i>Livre</i> . K'41.124. Syn. Poire d'Une Livre.																				Originated by James Locke, West Cambridge, Mass.
<i>Livre de Bagnone</i> . D'69.772. Syn. of Glagli.																				
<i>Locke</i> . D'40.442. '57.577. '69.803. Magoffi'49.342. A'54.239. E'54.376. '59.398. H'172. F'73. Hor'55.193. Syns. Locke's Beurre, Locke's New Beurre.	Mass.	robo	m	ygru	mj	spv	g	l												
<i>Locke's Beurre</i> . Magoffi'49.342. T'75.550. '85.565. '97.707. Syn. of Locke.																				
<i>Locke's New Beurre</i> . Magoffi'37.863. E'54.437. '57.577. '69.803. E'54.376. '59.398. Syn. of Locke.																				
<i>Loize</i> . K'39.178. '41.148. D'45.398. '57.552. '69.803. MassH'47.90. B'51.307. W'71. E'54.377. '59.443. Hor'56.350. Culf'56.359. A'62.70. '96.18. Hor'62.468. H'173. E'71. A'75.234. '85.282. '97.461. Mich'177.322. Syns. Bordenave, Bordenave, Smith's Beurre.	Pa.	p	m	gbu	glm	a	vg	m												Originated near Philadelphia, Pa.
<i>Legal</i> . IIIH'96.187.	Ill.?																			In trial orchards of Illinois experimental station.
<i>Lollipop</i> . R. Syn. Gros Lollipop.																				Published by Magazine of Horticulture 1843, p. 128.
<i>Loisel</i> . L. Syn. Beurre Loisel.	For.																			Published by Field, p. 278; not described.
<i>London</i> . L. Syn. London Sugar.	Eng.	p	s	yb	dm	s	g	ve												Described by Lindley.
<i>London Sugar</i> . Pr.193. K'32.156. Gen'F'97.277. D'69.803. Syn. of London.																				
<i>Long</i> . R. Syn. Krasovka, Langbein, Long Pear, Pana, Vermillon Estrangillon.																				
<i>Loma de Montecito</i> . Magoffi'43.541. CGen'III.11. Syn. Angleterre.																				

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.		Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Long Green. C193. Pr66. M'38,76. 44,62,47,67. D'45,418. 57,556, 69,803. Cole150. NA PC 40,11. K'32,138. B'51,307. W'57,2. F'281. E'54,331, 79,341. Agr 59,367. T'75,264, 85,282, 97,461. Syns. Autumn Mouthwater, Great Mouthwater, Green Mouthwater, Gros Mouille Bouche, Long Green Mouthwater, Longue Verte, Long Vert (of Coxo), Mouille Bouche, Mouille Bouche d'Automne, Mouthwater, Muscat Fleure, New Autumn, Verte Longue, Verte Longue d'Automne, Verte Longue de la Mayenne.		Eur....	obop	s	g	mj	sv	g	me	An old variety described by Duhamel.
Long Green. H172,199. Syn. of Long Green (Aut.).			obip	m	gru	bjm		g	m	A very old variety: probably obsolete.
Long Green (Aut.). L. Syns. Autumn Mouthwater, Coule Solt d'Automne, Long Green, Long Green of Autumn, Mouille Bouche d'Automne, Panachee, Verte Longue d'Automne.										
Long Green (Esp.). L. Syns. Long Green of Esperin, Verte Longue of Esperin.		Belg....	obip	m	gyru	jm	v	g	me	Downing received it from L. E. Berckmans.
Long Green Mouthwater. K'41,125. Syn. of Long Green.										
Long Green of Autumn. Magoffi'49,468. Agr 50,185. D'69,804. T'75,264, 85,282, 97,462. Syn. of Long Green (Aut.).										
Long Green (Panachee). D'69,804. Syn. of Long Green (Esp.).			obip	m	gys	jm	v	g	me	Differs from Long Green in being striped.
Long Green (Panachee). L. Syns. Calotte de Suisse, Long Green Panachee, Striped Dean, Striped Long Green, Suisse, Verte Longue panachee, Verte Longue panachee or Suisse, Verte Longue Striped of Suisse, Verte Longue Suisse.										
Long Green Panachee. D'69,804. Syn. of Long Green (Pan.).										
Long Green Summer Pear. DomEncIV 182. Syn. of Prince Table.										
Long Green Swiss. Cult 47,340. Syn. of Long Swiss.			sp	l	g		s	g	l	Described by Dr. Mease in the Domestic Encyclopedia in 1804.
Long Green Winter. DomEncIV 185. GarCal87.										Grown for the manufacture of perry.
Long Island Summer. D'69,758. Syn. of Jargonelle (Eng.).			ovate		yrn					
Longland. P'210. GenF'37,278. C'GenX,239. EFA BC'60.										
Long Pear. FGAofO 92,108. Syn. of Long.										
Long Pear. FGAofO 91,12. Syn. of Panna.										
Long Rosewater. Pr147. Syn. of Rosewater.										
Long-Stalk Blanquet. Pr16. Syn. of Blanquet (Long Stem).										
Long-Stalked Blanquet. Pr16. D'69,804. Syn. of Blanquet (Long Stem).										
Long-Stalked Blanquet. Pr16. K'32,123, 41,118. D'69,804. Syn. of Blanquet (Long Stem).										
Long-Stalked Muscat of Autumn. Pr12,129. Syn. of Muscat Fleuri.										
Long-Stalked Muscat of the End of Autumn. Pr90. Syn. of Rousseille.										
Long-Stem. Gb. FGAofO 93,146. Tex B16. Syn. Dolgokovostka Morosovakaya.		Rus....								Introduced from Russia in 1879. Not described by the Cultivator, 1847, p. 340.
Long Swiss. R. Syn. Long Green Swiss.										
Long-Tailed Blanquette. Pr16. D'69,804. Syn. of Blanquet (Long Stem).										
Long-Tailed Muscat. K'32,140. Syn. of Rousseille.										
Langue de Boquet. A'71,55.		For....	ap	m	yrb	mj	gy	vg	me	First fruited in America in 1870.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Long Green. C193. Pr56. M'38, 76, 44, 62, 47, 57. D'45, 418, 57, 556, 769, 803. Cole150. NA PC 49, 11. K'32, 138. B'51, 307. W'672. F'281. E'54, 331, 79, 341. Agr 56, 367. T'75, 264, 85, 282, 37, 461. Syns. Autumn Mouthwater, Great Mouthwater, Green Mouthwater, Gros Mouille Bouche, Long Green Mouthwater, Longue Verte, Long Vert (of Coxo), Mouille Bouche, Mouille Bouche d'Automne, Mouthwater, Muscat Fleure, New Autumn, Verte Longue, Verte Longue d'Automne, Verte Longue de la Mayenne.	Eur.....	obop	s	g	mj	sv	g	me	An old variety described by Duhamel.
Long Green. H172, 199. Syns. of Long Green (Aut.).		oblp	m	gru	bjm		g	m	A very old variety; probably obsolete.
Long Green of Autumn. L. Syns. Autumn Mouthwater, Coule Solf d'Automne, Long Green, Long Green of Autumn, Mouille Bouche d'Automne, Panachee, Verte Longue d'Automne.		oblp	m	gyru	jm	v	g	me	Downing received it from L. E. Berckmans.
Long Green (Esp.). L. Syns. Long Green of Esperin, Verte Longue of Esperin.	Belg....	oblp	m	gyr	jm	v	g	me	Differs from Long Green in being striped.
Long Green Mouthwater. K'41, 125. Syn. of Long Green.									
Long Green of Autumn. Magoffi' 49, 448. Agr 50, 95. D'69, 804. T'75, 264, 85, 282, 97, 462. Syn. of Long Green (Aut.)									
Long Green of Esperin. D'69, 804. Syn. of Long Green (Esp.)									
Long Green (Pan.). L. Syns. Culotte de Suisse, Long Green Panachee, Striped Dean, Striped Long Green, Suisse, Verte Longue panachee, Verte Longue panachee or Suisse, Verte Longue Striped or Suisse, Verte Longue Suisse.									
Long Green Panachee. D'69, 804. Syn. of Long Green (Pan.)									
Long Green Summer Pear. DomEnclV 182. Syn. of Prince Table.									
Long Green Suisse. Cult 47, 340. Syn. of Long Swiss.		ap	l	g	s	g	g	l	Described by Dr. Mease in the Domestic Encyclopedia in 1804.
Long Green Winter. DomEnclV 185. Garcal187.		ovate		gyru					Grown for the manufacture of perry.
Long Island Summer. D'69, 758. Syn. of Jargonelle (Eng.)									
Longland. Pr210. GenF'37, 278. C'GenX, 239. EFA BC'60.									
Long Pear. FGAoO'92, 108. Syn. of Long.									
Long Pear. FGAoO'91, 12. Syn. of Panna. [This and Long may be identical.]									
Long Rosewater. Pr147. Syn. of Rosewater									
Long-Stalk blanquet. Pr16. Syn. of Blanquet (Long Stem)									
Long-Stalked Blanquet. Pr16. D'69, 804. Syn. of Blanquet (Long Stem)									
Long-Stalked Blanquet. Pr16. K'32, 129, 41, 118. D'69, 804. Syn. of Blanquet (Long Stem).									
Long-Stalked Muscat of Autumn. Pr12, 129. Syn. of Muscat Fleure.									
Long-Stalked Muscat of the End of Autumn. Pr90. Syn. of Rousseline.									
Long-Stem. Gb. FGAoO'93, 146. TexB16. Syn. Dolgokostka Morosovakaya.	Rus....								Introduced from Russia in 1879. Not described by the Cultivator, 1847, p. 340.
Long Swiss. R. Syn. Long Green Swiss.									
Long-Tailed Blanquette. Pr16. D'69, 804. Syn. of Blanquet (Long Stem)									
Long-Tailed Muscat. K'32, 140. Syn. of Rousseline.									
Longue de Boquet. A'71, 55.	For....	ap	m	yrb	mj	gy	vg	me	First fruited in America in 1870.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Louise Bonne d'Avenches</i> . K'41,148. D'45,397,57,520,69,805. Hov1,230. E'64,330,59,345. F'218. Agr'62,186. T'75,550,85,566,97,707. MGH'87,96. Syn. of Louise.									
<i>Louise Bonne de Boulogne</i> . Hov1,9. E'64,343,69,413. Syn. of Le Clerc (Van Mons).									
<i>Louise Bonnet d'Hiver</i> . D'69,835. Syn. of Pound.									
<i>Louise Bonne de Jersey</i> . M'38,81,44,71,47,73. K'41,148. D'45,397,57,520,69,805. Hov1,230. Cole162. W'67,2. E'54,330,59,345. Agr'54,291,62,186. B'51,306,93,372. A'62,70. A'Horta'68,80. A'H233. Syn. of Louise.									
<i>Louise Bonne (de Jersey)</i> . B1228,297. Syn. of Louise.									
<i>Louise Bonne de Printemps</i> . D'69,804. A'60,111,377. Syn. of Louise Printemps.									
<i>Louise Bonne of Jersey</i> . GenF'63,197. D'45,397,57,520,69,805. Agr'50,94. Hov1,230. E'54,330,59,345. F'218. F152. T'75,550,85,566,97,707. Wn1,526,11,366,111,268. A'60,111,377. Syn. of Louise.									
<i>Louise Bonne Red</i> . MagOH'46,391,55,146. D'45,441,57,577,69,804. E'54,397,59,422. E'831. Syn. of Louise Bonne.									
<i>Louise Bonne Saunier</i> . EF'60,06. CanEx'FR'05,431. Syn. of Saunier.									
<i>Louise d'Avenches</i> . EF'60,06. Syn. of Louise.									
<i>Louise de Boulogne</i> . F'51,317.			l		br			vi	Cultivated by Ellwanger & Barry in the early fifties.
<i>Louise de Carcelles</i> . F'281. Syn. of Carcelles.									Originated by Dr. John Van Mons. Distinct from Urbaniste.
<i>Louise d'Orleans</i> . Hort'46,140. MagOH'47,450. Agr'63,282.	Belg.								
<i>Louise d'Orleans</i> . MagOH'47,450,53,105. B'51,317. Hov11,21. E'54,342. A'62,188. D'69,871. T'75,550. Syn. of Urbaniste.									
<i>Louise de Prusse</i> . MassH'51,180,53,119. MagOH'52,39. Hort'54,78. Agr'54,243,63,123. D'57,545,69,859. F'281. E'59,351. Syn. of Stevens.									
<i>Louise Moré</i> . MagOH'42,250. Syn. of Morrel.									
<i>Louise Morrel</i> . K'41,170. Syn. of Morrel.	Belg.	ap	m	ybr	mj	s		me	Sent to Robert Manning by Dr. John Van Mons.
<i>Louise Nova</i> . L. Syns. Marie Louise Nova, Marie Louise the New.									
<i>Louise de Boulogne</i> . A'54,239. D'69,806. Syn. of Boulogne.									
<i>Louise of Orleans</i> . E'54,342,59,352. Syn. of Urbaniste.	Fr.	oblp	l	yr	mij	sp		vi	Raised by M. Bolsbunel, of Rouen, France.
<i>Louise Printemps</i> . L. Syn. Louise Bonne de Printemps.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Louise Vilmorin</i> . EF'ABC'00.									Raised in 1832 by M. Gregoire, of Jodoigne, Belgium.
<i>Louis Gregoire</i> . D'69,806.	Fr.	robop	m	gyru	jm	sv	s	m	A very old variety.
<i>Louis of Boulogne</i> . MassH'44,60. Syn. of Boulogne.									
<i>Louisa</i> . F'86.		obl		yr	m	v		m	
<i>Louis Philippe</i> . K'41,169. H173. F'280. Syn. of Salomon.									

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in *American publications from 1804 to 1907*—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Lyerle. A'97.44. Syn. <i>Lyerle</i>	Ill.?								Said to have originated from seed of Bartlett.
Lyerle. M&S'01. A'4C'02. Syn. of <i>Lyerle</i>	R. I.	obl	m	ycru	coglm	s	g-vg	m	Originated at Newport, R. I.
Lyon. D'90.807. T'75,278, '85,266, '97,472.....	Eur.		l	y	b		vg	l	Imported from France by Judge Fuel, of Albany, N. Y.
Maille. MagotII'36,456, '37,37.53. K'41.133. MassH'44.61. A'54,230.....									
Maille. MagotH'46,176. D'57,424, '90,686. F277. T'75,550, '85,556, '97,708. Syn. of <i>Diel</i> .									
Maille. F281. D'69.819. Syn. of <i>Napoleon</i>	N. Y.	obop	l	yr			g	m	Probably should be "McVean." See Downing, 1899, p. 807. One of Francis Dana's named seedlings.
McBeau. F273.....	Mass.								
Mac. MassH'60,50, 72,91, '73,98. WNYH'06.140.....									
McGill Seedling No. 1. FGAO'02.81. [Originated at Oshawa, Canada.]									
McGill Seedling No. 2. FGAO'02.81. [Originated at Oshawa, Canada.]									
McGill Seedling No. 3. FGAO'02.81. [Originated at Oshawa, Canada.]									
MacKinnon's Seedling. CanH'87,282. [Said to have originated at Markham, Ontario, Canada.]									
McLaughlin. MagotH'42,62, '44,37,213, '47,251. MassH'43,4,47. ColeI70. B'51,318. W'72. A'52,62. AGR'33,280, '33,125. E'54,377, '96,397. D'57,524, '90,807. F272. T'75,289, '85,307, '97,480. Bul6.8. A'1H'255.	Me.	obtp	l	gyru	jm	sp	g-vg	l	Introduced by S. L. Goodale, of Saco, Me.
McLellan. A'62,151. AGR'03,127. D'69,880. Syn. of <i>Whieldon</i> .	Vt.?	p	m	gyb	bmf	s	vg-b	me	In the collection of Benjamin Buckman, Farmingdale, Ill.
Macomber. IIIH'02,173. MichB31. P'95.38. BBL. Syn. <i>Macomber</i>									
Macomber No. 6. MichB31. [Not described].									
Macomber. InCH'86,82. Syn. of <i>Macomber</i>	N. Y.	obop	l	yr	co	s	g	me	Originated in Monroe County, New York.
McVean. Hort54,340. D'57,578, '69,807. T'75,561, '85,566, '97,709.....									
Madame. D'68,883. Syn. of <i>Windor</i>									
Madame Adelaide Reves. D'57,449, '69,654. Syn. of <i>Adelaide</i>									
Madame Adelaide Reves. MagotH'57,502. Syn. of <i>Reves</i>									
Madame Andre Leroy. A'75,56. OH'71,48. Dap129. MichH'75,285. E&B'94. AH-M253. Syn. of <i>Leroy</i>									
Mad. A. Anne Lormier. HAJ'88,74. Syn. of <i>Lormier</i>	Fr.	tp	ml	g	djm	sp		m	Raised by A. Leroy and named for his daughter.
Madame Appert. AJoH'VIII,228. Dap151. NYC'90.....									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Madame Balot. EFABC'00.....									
Madame Baptiste Desports. A'71,55. OH'71,48. Dap152. Hort'72,102. Syn. of <i>Desports</i> (Madame).....									
Madame Bonnefond. EFABC'00. CanExFR'05,431. Syn. of <i>Bonnefond</i>									
Madame Chaussy. EFABC'00. Syn. of <i>Chaussy</i>									
Madame Outard. AJoH'VIII,228. MassI'72,92. Dap129. Syn. of <i>Cullesard</i>									

<i>Madame de France</i> . D'69,883. Syn. of Windsor. <i>Alfred VIII, 228.</i>								Fruited with Robert Manning.
<i>Madame Belmonte</i> . AJOH VII, 128. Mass H'71, 30.								In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Madame Desportes</i> . Hort'74, 148. Syn. of Desportes (Madame).								
<i>Madame Ducar</i> . D'57,522, 69,808. E'59,397. T'75,550, 85,566, '97,708. Syn. of Ducar.								
<i>Madame du Pula</i> . EFABC'00.								
<i>Madame Durieux</i> . D'69,808. Syn. of Durieux.								
<i>Madame Elisa</i> . Mass H'53, 21. Magroff'02, 72, 14. Syn. of Madame Elisa.								
<i>Madame Elisa</i> . D'57,522, 69,809. Mass H'58, 74. Agr'58, 396. E'59, 396. F'281.								
Hort'61, 315, '72, 38. B'83, 382. Syn. Madame Elisa.								
<i>Madame Favre</i> . AJOH VII, 122. Syn. Madame Elisa.								
<i>Madame Flou Aine</i> . EFABC'00. Syn. of Flou Aine.								
CanExFR'02, 380.								
<i>Madame Gregoire</i> . D'69,809. EFABC'00.								
<i>Madame Hemmaway</i> . E&B'94, '02. IUH'96, 178. EFABC'00. CanExFR'06, 430.								
Syn. of Hemmaway.								
<i>Madame Henri Desportes</i> . D'69,809. Mass H'71, 30, '74, 157. A'73, 76. Hort'75, 1.								
T'75, 550, '85, 566, '97, 708. Syn. of Desportes.								
<i>Madame Inulin</i> . EFABC'00. Syn. of Hutlin.								
<i>Madame Loriot</i> . L. Syms. Madame Loriot de Barney, Mme. Loriot de Barney.								
<i>Mme. Loriot de Barney</i> . OH'71, 48. Syn. of Madame Loriot.								
<i>Madame Loriot de Barney</i> . AJOH VIII, 228. AHort'A'71, 69. Mass H'72, 92. Dap								
129. Syn. of Madame Loriot.								
<i>Madame Lye Ballet</i> . EFABC'00.								
<i>Madame Millet</i> . D'57,521, 69,809. Magroff'57, 301. E'59, 393. T'75, 550, '85, 566, '97, 708.								
NYC'90. E&B'94. AHM'550. Syn. of Millet (Madame).								
<i>Madame Rosette</i> . EFABC'00. Syn. of Rosettes.								
AJOH V, 33. D'69,809. AHort'A'70, 73. A'71, 56, 81, 30. T'75, 550,								
'85, 566, '97, 708. Mich H'75, 283. E&B'94. Syn. of Treve.								
<i>Madame Vert</i> . Magroff'50, 296, 90, 251. A'54, 259. EFABC'00. CanExFR								
01, 546.								
<i>Madame Von Siebold</i> . GAH'58, 47, '92, 49. LabR'01. Syn. of Siebold.								
<i>Madame Von Siebold</i> . GAH'58, 49, '93, 53. A'57, 98. OH'87, 166, '98, 8. GHM&S'90, 94.								
NYC'90. Syn. of Siebold.								
<i>Madame Madeline</i> . C'75, 7. P'15, 13. K'32, 129, '41, 118. M'78, 64, '44, 48, 57, 56. IndF'40, 181.								
Gan'33, 106, '37, 36. Cult'42, 166, '44, 36. D'45, 341, 57, 441, '69, 809. Cobel's, W'72.								
B'53, 200, '83, 261. Agr'59, 94, 53, 81. E'54, 331, '59, 43. H'43. T'75, 552, 85, 270, '97, 453.								
Syms. Citron de Carnes. Citron des Carnes. Early Chaumontelle. Early Cha-								
umont (incorrectly). Early Rose Angles. Green Chisel. Green Chisel (incorect-								
ly). Grune Magdalena. Grune Sommer Magdalena. Hastling pear.								
Magdalena au Citron des Carnes. Madeline, Magdalena, Magdalena,								
Poire Hativau or hativau, Sainte Madeline.								
<i>Madeline</i> (Ang.). L. Syn. Madeline d'Angers.								
<i>Madeline d'Angers</i> . F'281. Syn. of Madeline (Aug.).								
<i>Madeline au Citron des Carnes</i> . D'45, 341, 57, 441, '69, 809. H'43. Syn. of Made-								
leine.								
<i>Madeline Vert</i> . D'69, 776. Syn. of Chisel.								
G83. F'281. Bl'27, 230. Wnill'235. Syn. of Madeline.								
<i>Madeline Striped</i> . L'17. Syn. of Madeline Var.								

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Madeline , Var. F281. Syns. Citron des Carmes penache, Madeline Striped. <i>Mademoiselle Blanche Sannier</i> . FGAO10'83.72. Syn. of Blanche Sannier. <i>Madot</i> . F776. Syn. of Amadotte. <i>Madotte</i> . K 41.148. MagOH'42.166.50.296. 62.419. MassH'44.66. A'54.239. E'54. 397.59.423. Hort'56.193. D'57.563.96.657. T'75.551.85.566.97.708. Syn. of Ama- dotte. <i>Magalen</i> . P'13. GenF'37.277. E'54.331. 76.343. AgR'63.125. T'75.252.85.270. 97.433. A'H'253. Syn. of Madeleine. <i>Magdeleine</i> . P'13. K'32.129. Syn. of Madeleine. <i>Magdelein</i> . D'43.341.99.899. E'54.331. F247.281. T'85.370. Syn. of Madeleine. <i>Maguete</i> . MichSB30. MichB206. CanEXFR'96.445. IIH'97.213. EFABC'00.	For								Published by Field; not described.
Magnolia . AgrH'93.288. JVL'99.02. IIH'99.219. Buls. LaB81. JSK'01. HuC'01. GHM'43. JAY'00. <i>Magnolia Snow</i> . IIH'96.194. Mer'99.63. Syn. of Snow. <i>Makoning</i> . A'83.131. OH'83.81.	Ga.	obr	ml	ru	m	vp	vg	m	In Bulletin of the Michigan Agri- cultural Experiment Station, p. 56. It is said to be "very prom- ising." Belongs to the Oriental class of pears.
Mal . L. Syns. Beel de Mal, Bezi Mal. <i>Malchen of Flandere</i> . P'11. D'69.818. Syn. of Muscat Robert. <i>Malchen of X Malenge</i> . Frii. D'69.818. Syn. of Muscat Robert. <i>Malchen de Gras Ouse</i> . D'69.819. Syn. of Napoleon. <i>Malte</i> . L. Syn. Fondante de la Maltre d'Ecole.	Belg.	obt	l	yg	bj	s		vl	Introduced from Mahoning County, Ohio. Raised by M. Jenghe, of Brussels. Fruited in 1896.
Malor . L. Syn. Pope's Scarlet Malor. <i>Malconnaire</i> . F'59.397. D'69.722. Syn. of Collins. <i>Malconnaire d'Harpin</i> . MassH'53.18. MagOH'54.83. D'57.522.69.810. E'59.397. T'75.551.85.566.97.708. Syn. of Harpin. <i>Malines</i> . Buls.8. Syns. Josephine de Malines, Josephine (erroneously), Jose- phine of Malines. <i>Malines</i> . T'97.708. Syn. of Winter Nella. <i>Malines (Fondante)</i> . L. Syns. Fondante de Malines, Fondante de Malines (Es- peren). <i>Malines (Gift)</i> . L. Syns. Gift from Malines, Present de Malines.	Eur.	p	m	y	m			l	Described by Hogg in the Fruit Manual. Originated on Long Island.
Malmoth . AgrH'55.297. <i>Malmoth</i> . MagOH'42.403. IndH'75.42.78.87. IaH'77.66. Syn. of Ochletree Manchester. <i>Manchester Late</i> . D'69.810. Syns. Manchester Late, Manchester October. <i>Manchester October</i> . A'92.151. D'69.810. Syn. of Manchester.	N. Y.	obo	ml	yr	br		p	me	
Malmoth . AgrH'55.297. <i>Malmoth</i> . MagOH'42.403. IndH'75.42.78.87. IaH'77.66. Syn. of Ochletree Manchester. <i>Manchester Late</i> . D'69.810. Syns. Manchester Late, Manchester October. <i>Manchester October</i> . A'92.151. D'69.810. Syn. of Manchester.	Belg.	robt	m	gyru	m	sp	vg	l	Raised by Maj. Esperen, of Ma- lines, Belgium.
Malmoth . AgrH'55.297. <i>Malmoth</i> . MagOH'42.403. IndH'75.42.78.87. IaH'77.66. Syn. of Ochletree Manchester. <i>Manchester Late</i> . D'69.810. Syns. Manchester Late, Manchester October. <i>Manchester October</i> . A'92.151. D'69.810. Syn. of Manchester.	Belg.	obop	m	gyru	cojm	sp	g-vg	m	A seedling raised by Maj. Esperen.
Malmoth . AgrH'55.297. <i>Malmoth</i> . MagOH'42.403. IndH'75.42.78.87. IaH'77.66. Syn. of Ochletree Manchester. <i>Manchester Late</i> . D'69.810. Syns. Manchester Late, Manchester October. <i>Manchester October</i> . A'92.151. D'69.810. Syn. of Manchester.	Fl.			y	m	p	g		Raised by Count Coloma, of Ma- lines, Belgium.
Malmoth . AgrH'55.297. <i>Malmoth</i> . MagOH'42.403. IndH'75.42.78.87. IaH'77.66. Syn. of Ochletree Manchester. <i>Manchester Late</i> . D'69.810. Syns. Manchester Late, Manchester October. <i>Manchester October</i> . A'92.151. D'69.810. Syn. of Manchester.									This may be Ochletree.
Malmoth . AgrH'55.297. <i>Malmoth</i> . MagOH'42.403. IndH'75.42.78.87. IaH'77.66. Syn. of Ochletree Manchester. <i>Manchester Late</i> . D'69.810. Syns. Manchester Late, Manchester October. <i>Manchester October</i> . A'92.151. D'69.810. Syn. of Manchester.	R. I.	obop	m	ycru	m	s	g	m	Originated in Providence, R. I.

Mandarine. L. Syn. Orange Mandarin.										Described by Hogg in the Fruit Manual.	
<i>Mandieu</i> . Ph37. D'69,656. Syn. of Mont Dieu.											
<i>Manna</i> . Th180. Syn. of Colmar.											
<i>Manna and Manne</i> . Pr99. Syn. of Colmar.											
<i>Manning</i> . Mass11'66,43.											
<i>Manning's Elizabeth</i> . D'45,385,57,400,69,810. Mass11'47,58. Hort'41. Agr'96,338.											
AJoff11'111,139. WisH'80,81,105. B'3,3,4, 200. T'75,255,85,273,97,453. Mich											
H'80,420. Bul'6,8. Syn. of Elizabeth.											
<i>Manning's Elizabeth Beurre de Jellie</i> . FG.Aof'92,111. Syn. of Elizabeth.											
<i>Mannington</i> . A'99,45 101. Dap129.											
<i>Mansfield</i> . D'69,811. AHort'49,79.											
<i>Mansuette</i> . Pr2 K'32,129,41,122. MagoffH'43,127. D'57,577,69,661. F281. T'73.											
531,85,566,97,708. Syn. of Angobert.											
<i>Mansuette</i> . Pr43. Syn. of Spanish.											
<i>Mansuette Solitaire</i> . Pr2. K'32,129. Syn. of Angobert.											
<i>Marasquin</i> . D'69,811.											
<i>Marreaux</i> . MagoffH'43,131.											
<i>Marcellis</i> . MagoffH'50,259. Syn. of Marulla.											
<i>Marcellis</i> . B'34,231. D'54,397,59,422. D'69,815. Syn. of Marulla.											
<i>Marcey</i> . R. Syn. De Marcey.											
<i>March Bergamot</i> . MagoffH'47,51,50,408. A'54,230. F281. Syn. March Bergamotte.											
<i>March Bergamotte</i> . MagoffH'47,151. E'54,277,59,398. D'57,578,69,811. H174. T-											
75,551,85,566,97,708. Syn. of March Bergamot.											
<i>Marchionesse</i> . Pr80. Syn. of Marquise.											
<i>Marchionesse</i> . K'32,138,41,123. Syn. of Marquise.											
<i>Marchal</i> . R. Syn. Band de la Cour. B. O. de la Cour. Conseiller de la Cour, Duc											
d'Orleans, Grosse Marie, Marchal de Cour, Marchal Decours, Marchal de la											
Cour.											
<i>Marchal de Cour</i> . MagoffH'52,300,58,290. WHR11,560. D'57,483. F281. Syn. of											
Marchal.											
<i>Marchal Decours</i> . D'69,811. Syn. of Marchal.											
<i>Marchal de la Cour</i> . MagoffH'52,25,57,156. E'54,377,59,400. F278. Hort'90,68.											
Agr'93,124. D'69,811. Mich11'74,28. T'75,551,85,566,97,708. B'83,372. Syn. of											
Marchal.											
<i>Marchal Dillen</i> . D'57,524,69,811. T'75,551,85,566,97,708. Syn. of Dillen.											
<i>Marchal Pellissier</i> . D'57,523. F281. T'75,551,85,566,97,708. Syn. of Pellissier.											
<i>Marchal Pellissier</i> . MagoffH'57,402. Hort'57,510. Syn. of Pellissier.											
<i>Marchal Vaillant</i> . Dap130. Syn. of Vaillant.											
<i>Marasquet</i> . Hort'66,172. A'67,150,69,43. AJoffHIV'46. D'69,811. HIAJ'90,64. MoH											
'90,35,56. Can Ex FR'95,380. ILL'96,299.											
<i>Marquerite</i> . GalH'93,49. Bul'6,8. WisH'62,114. AHM225. Syn. Petite Marguerite.											
<i>Marquerite la Grosse</i> . MagoffH'43,131.											
<i>Marguerite Marliat</i> . GalH'93,54,56. EFABC00.											

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Marla. FGAofO71,25,7468. Dapl52. Syn. Curran.	{ N. S. ? (Ont.)	{ r	ms	yr	dhjm	sv		me	{ Downing says that this variety originated in Windsor, N. S.; perhaps Ontario.
Marla. Hov11,37. E54,377,53,398. Syn. of Marie Louise.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Marla Lesueur. R. Syn. L'epreux de Marie Lesueur.									Not described.
Marie Louise. Cole104. Syn. of Marie Louise.									
Marie Louise bis. Cult. 47,340.									
Marianne. Agr. 7,139. D'68,827. Syn. of Paradise.									
Marianne de Nancy. D'57,524,69,812. F281. E59,397. T75,551,78,560,97,708.									
Syn. of Nancy.									
Marianne Nouvelle. D'45,338. Hov1,65. E54,315,50,329. Agr. 63,123. Syn. of Bosc.									
Marie Nouvelle. D'57,511,68,827. F254,282. Agr. 67,139. Syn. of Paradise.									
Marla (Princess). L. Syn. Princess Marla, Princess Marie.	Belg.	obop	ms	yr	coljm	vp	g	me	Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.
Marie-Anne. R. Syn. Marie-Anne de Nancy.		t	m	gru	mb	sv	g	m	This may be Nancy.
Marie-Anne de Nancy. Magoff54,456. Syn. of Marie-Anne.									
Marie Benolist. B81,382. NYC90. EFABC00.	Fr.		l						
Marie Chretienne. GenF33,197. K. 41,148. D'45,399,57,522,69,813. Hov11,37. E54,									
377,50,398. F248. Syn. of Marie Louise.									
Marie de Nantes. Magoff157,302. D'69,812. Syn. of Nantes (Marie)									
Marie Guisee. D'69,813. Aoff191,296. EFABC00. Syn. of Guisee.									
Marie Louise. Pr131. K72,179,41,148. GenF33,197. MF38,87,44,75,47,79. Cult. 39,06.									
D'45,399,57,522,69,813. Hort. 40,68,82,83,90,492. Syn. of Braddick's Field Mar-									
shal. Braddick's Field Standard, Corchorus, Farim Marie Louise, Forme de Ma-									
rie Louise, Marie Louise, Marie Chretienne, Marie Louise d'Ecourt,									
Marie Louise de Jersey, Marie Louise Delacourt, Marie Louise Doukelaar, Marie									
Louise Nouvelle, Marie Louise Nova, Marie Louise (the second), Princesse de									
Farine, Van Donckelaer, Van Donckelaer.									
Marie Louise d'Ecourt. K. 41,149. D'69,813. Syn. of Marie Louise									
Marie Louise Delacourt. K. 41,149. D'69,813. EFABC00. Syn. of Marie Louise									
Marie Louise de Jersey. D'69,813. Syn. of Marie Louise									
Marie Louise Donckelaar. D'69,813. Syn. of Marie Louise									
Marie Louise d'Ecourt. Massif162,82. D'69,813. Aoff191,296. E54,									
382. Wnl.583,11,542. Hort. 40,68,82,83,90,492. Syn. of Ecourt.									
Marie Louise Nouvelle. K. 41,149. D'69,813. Syn. of Marie Louise									
Marie Louise Nova. K. 41,149. D'69,813. Syn. of Marie Louise									
Marie Louise (the new). F281. Syn. of Louise Nova									
Marie Louise (the new). F281. Syn. of Louise Nova									

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Marum Flak. EFAB'00. CanExFR'04,480. Syn. of Marum.									
Mary. Hort'66,78. A'67,150. D'69,815. A'69,82,100. AJofHIV,49,VIII,224.	Ohio.	rp	sm	yrro	jb	s	vg	ve	Origin by William Case, Cleveland, Ohio.
A'Horta A'70,77. MVHS'86,103. IIIH'97,213,02,220.									
Mariand Seedling. A'69,101. AJofHIV,179. Syn. of Sam Brown.	Fr.	obtp	l	ygru	j	sp		l	Originated from seed of Passe Colmar in 1850.
Mas. R. Syn. Alexandrine Mas.									Mentioned by Prof. Budd among Russian varieties.
Masatchnaja dvojnaja. IsH'80,61.	Rus.								
Maslichchnaya. IsH'88,190. Syn. of Double Buere.									
Maslichchnaya dvojnaya. Gb. Syn. of Double Buere.									
Mas (Pros.). L. Syn. President Mas.	Fr.	oblp	l	yru	dmb	s		l	From Transom's Catalogue. This may be Hull. See Massachusetts Horticultural Report, 1848, p.101.
Mason. MassII'46,101.									Exhibited by Mr. Winship at meeting of Massachusetts Horticultural Society, 1844.
Massachusetts. MassII'44,63.									Origin with J. Mather, Jenkintown, Pa.
Mather. Hort'51,439. A'56,82,99,15. Agr'56,363. D'57,524,69,815. F274. E'50,398. T'75,551,85,566,97,708.	Pa.	rov	ms	gyr	co	s	g	me	Recommended by G. P. Peffer, in Wisconsin Horticultural Society Report, 1889.
Matilda. WisH'80,176. CanExFR'96,136. EFABC'00.									A new variety from Hopedale, Ill.
Mathews. A'03,82.	Ill.?								
Mathews' Eliza. D'69,776. Syn. of Groom.									
Maurice. F278. Syn. of Colmar.									
Maurice Desportes. AHort'X'70,612. AJofHIVIII,229. MassII'71,40. OH'71,48.									
Depi30. Agr'75,381. Hort'75,5. Mich'73,89. B'83,382. Syn. of Desportes.									
Maury. L. Syn. Elizabeth Maury.	Va.	ob	s	gyb	djm	sv		me	Originated by R. Maury, Charlottesville, Va.
Mauxlon. A'02,112. CGenXX,222. T797,708. Syn. Beurre Mauxlon.									
Max. Agr'92,262. A'95,73.	Ohio.	rp	m	yrro	dbm	j	vg	me	An Ohio seedling of Flemish.
Mayflower. MassH'66,44. EFABC'00.	Mass.								Raised by Dr. S. A. Shurtled, of Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1863.
Maynard. A'54,74. D'57,524,69,815. F274. E'50,238. T'75,551,85,566,97,708.	Pa.	obop	ms	ycru	j	s	g-p	ve	From Lancaster County Pa.
Meadow Feather. D'57,769,708. Syn. of Bleeker.									
Meadow Pear. P215. Mich'83,598.									
Mear's Sweet Butler. D'69,751. Syn. of Craig.	Utah?		vi	g				m	Reported by I. E. Johnson, of St. George, Utah.
Meckan. A'67,195.									Introduced in 1891. See Annals of Horticulture, 1891, p.268.
Meckeln. R. Syn. Josephine von Meckeln.									

Catalogue-indr. of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Messire , L. Syns. Brown Orange, Chaulls, Communauté, Convent, Couils, Emmlacour, Gray Monsieur John, John, Marion, Messire Jean, Messire Jean Blanc, Messire Jean Golden, Messire Jean blanc and Gris, Messire Jean Dore, Messire Jean Gris, Mr. John, Monsieur Jean, Monsieur Brown Gold, Monsieur Jean and Mr. John, Monsieur Jean Dore, Monsieur John, White and Grey Messire Jean, White and Grey Monsieur John, White Monsieur John.	Fr.....	t	m	ybru	gibr	s	g	1	A very old variety; perhaps of little value.
Messire d'Hiver , D 69,875. Syn. of Vieux.									
Messire Jean , D 54,387, 50,423, H175. F281. T75,551, 85,567, 97,709. OH 65,41. H115,15.									
EFA BC 00 , Syn. of Messire.									
Messire Jean Blanc , D 45,443, 57,578, 60,815. E 54,397, 59,423. F281. Syn. of Messire.									
Messire Jean blanc & Gris , P682. Syn. of Messire.									
Messire Jean Dore , P682. K'32 138. MagoffH'43,131. D'45,443, 57,578, 60,815. E'54,397, 59,423. Syn. of Messire.									
Messire Jean Golden , F281. Syn. of Messire.									
Messire Jean Gris , E'54,397, 59,423. D'57,578, 60,815. F281. Syn. of Messire.	Belg	rov	m	gyc	ybru	s	g	m	
Meurils , R. Syns. Ferdinand Demester, Surpasse Meurils.									
Meurils d'Hiver , K'41,170. MagoffH'42,250.	Belg	r	ms	ybru	b	s	g	vi	Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.
Meurils (No Plus) , L. Syn. No Plus Meurils.									Not described.
Meynler , R. Syn. Doy. Meynler.									Raised by Dr. John Van Mons; named for his grandson, P. Meurils.
Micado , IIIH'92,323. Syn. of Mikado.									Published in Horticultural Art Journal, 1888, p.74.
Michaux , MagoffH'39,205, 40,45, 42,60. D'45,388, 57,578, 60,816. A'54,230. E'54,387, 59,423. H176. F281. T75,551, 85,567, 97,709. Syns. Compté de Michaux, Comte de Michaux.		rp	m	ygr	colj	s	p	m	
Miel , R. Syn. Miel des Carmes.	For								Published by Field, p.281.
Miel des Carmes , F281. Syn. of Miel.									
Miel d'Waterloo , MassH'46,99, 51,175. MagoffH'51,473. D'57,494, 60,747. F283.									Published in Gardeners' Monthly, 1872, p.27.
E'59,379. T75,551, 85,567, 97,709. Syn. of Brabant.									Often very good; variable in quality.
Mignard , R. Syn. Augusto Mignard.									
Mignonne , L. Syn. Mignonne d'Hiver.	Belg	obop	m	yru	gjb	svp	g	1	In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Mignonne d'Hiver , D'57,525, 60,816. F281. E'59,398. T75,551, 85,567, 97,709. Syn. of Mignonne.									An Oriental variety; only valuable for cooking.
Mignot , FGA of O'93,146. EFA BC'00.									
Mikado , IndH'78,64, 79,40, 88,30, 92,93. PaB18. MichH'80,84. OH'87,160. LaB22. GHM & S'90,94. NYC'90. B1229,244. PJB'01. Syns. Japanese, Micado.									

[illegible]

Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1850, p. 296.

Shown by Ellwanger & Barry at meeting of Western New York Horticultural Society, 1905.

Originated at Angers, France.
Pronounced worthless at Michigan Experiment Station.

Origin with M. Goubalt at Mill-
pieds, France.
Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.

Catalogued by Silas Wharton in
1824.

Published in Arizona Experiment
Station Bulletin No. 15.
Exhibited by Col. M. P. Wilder.
Considered promising.
Exhibited by P. J. Berckmans.
Introduced in 1891.

Valued by M. Jamin.

An old California variety; tree nearly a century old.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Orign.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Mrs. Jackson. D'69,780. Syns. Jackson, Jackson's Elizab. Jackson's Seckel, Jackson's Seedling.	Ohio.	robop	m	gyeru	jm	sp	g-vg	me	Originated with S. S. Jackson, of Cincinnati, Ohio.
Mitchell. L. Syn. Mitchell's Russet.	Ill.	rp	ms	ybru	jm	a	g-p	m	Originated at Belleville, Ill.
F274. E'56,369. T'75,551, '85,567, '97,709. Syn. of Mitchell.	Rus.?		vi				g	m	Tree very hardy; a kitchen variety.
Mitschurina. FGA of '91,11. CanH '94,292.	Eng.	obo	m	g	j		p	l	Originated with Thomas Andrew Knight.
Mocca. K'41,163. MagoffH'42,165, '47,153. D'45,443, '57,578, '69,817. T'52,36. E'54,378, '56,369. H176. F281. T'75,551, '85,567, '97,709.									
Magoff Summer. MassH'37,39. MagoffH'40,18,19, '41,169. D'69,719. Syn. of Chemsford.									
Magoff Summer. F147. Syn. of Harrison.									
Molre. D'69,694. T'97,462. Syns. Belle de Molre, Beurre Molre.	Fr.	oblp	l	gyr	gbm	p	g-vg	m	Published by Field, p. 287.
Molse. L. Syn. Buette de Molse.	For.								
Molle Bouche d'Hiver. D'69,660. Syn. of Angouleme.									
Molle Bouche Nouvelle. D'69,760. Syn. of Flemish.									
Mollet. L. Syns. Mollet's Guernsey Beurre, Mollet's Seedling Chaumontel.	Eng.	ovp	m	ygeru	mb	v	g	l	Raised by C. Mollet, of the Island of Guernsey, England.
Mollet's Guernsey Beurre. D'45,426, '57,472, '69,817. H176. MHSC'76,30. T'85,554. Syn. of Mollet.									
Mollet's Guernsey Chaumontelle. K'41,163. MagoffH'42,164. D'45,426, '57,472. E'54,351, '56,361. MassH'51,175. T'97,709. Syn. of Guernsey.									
Mollet's Seedling Chaumontel. MagoffH'40,46, '51,473. Syn. of Mollet.									
Molite. FEABC'00.									
Monarch. K'32,196, '41,163. GenF'37,278. B'51,317. C'GenX,239. D'69,798. Syns. Knight a Monarch, Monarch Knight s, Monsieur Le Cure.	Eng.	r	m	ygeru	m	s	g	l	In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Monarch Knight s. MagoffH'47,155. Syn. of Monarch.									
Monchard. MassH'72,92.		tap	ml	yb	mf	p	g	me	Raised by Thomas Andrew Knight. Not valuable here.
Mondelle. L. Syn. Beurre Mondelle.	Belg.	robip	m	gyru	gjm	p	g	m	Exhibited by Col. M. P. Wilder as a new variety.
Mondelle. P'32, D'45,383, '57,571, '69,656. E'54,394, '59,420. F273. Syns. Ahl Mon Dieu, Beurre Syn, D'Abancour, Fancour, Mondieu, My God Pear, Point d'Amour, Poire d'Amour, The My God Pear.	Fr.	obop	m	yr	j	vs	g	m	But little known in America. A very old variety; perhaps obsolete.
Mongolian. IIIH'96,215. AHM'256. Syns. Mongolian Snow, Mongolian Snow Pear.									This and Kieffer possibly identical. See Iowa Horticultural Report, 1900, p. 88.
Mongolian Snow. AHM'256. Syn. of Mongolian.									
Mongolian Snow Pear. N233. IIIH'96,178,209, '02,213. IaB31. IaH'00,88. Syn. of Mongolian.									
Monkoudy. D'57,466, '69,661. F277. Syn. of Angletorre.									
Monalsard. EFABC'00.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.

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126

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavors.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Moore's Egg</i> (incorrectly). D'45,414,'57,583,'69,865. F282. T'75,551,'85,567,'97, 709. Syn. of Swan Egg.									
<i>Moore's Egg</i> (of Boston). K'32,141,'41,128. M'35,89,'44,74. Cult'47,340. Syn. of Swan Egg.									
<i>Moore's Pound</i> . MagoffH'46,248. Syn. of Hoenschenck.	Eng	obo	m	yr	cj	s	g	vi	A cooking pear. Description from Hogge. Originated in Hanover County, N. C.
<i>Morel</i> . MagoffH'35,131. D'68,818.	N. C.		l	yr			m		
<i>Morgan</i> . MagoffH'50,541. Hort'59,250. T'75,552,'85,567,'97,709.									
<i>Morgan</i> . D'69,780. Syn. of Hawes.									
<i>Moray</i> . L. Syn. Duc de Morny.	Fr	robtp	m	yr	j	v	g	ml	Raised by M. Bolsbunel, of Rouen, France.
<i>Morsovskaja</i> . IaH'80,61.	Rus.?								Mentioned by Prof. Budd; not described.
<i>Morrel</i> . L. Syna. Favorite Morel, Louise Morrel.									Not described.
<i>Morren</i> . L. Syn. Edward Morren.	Eur.	r	s	gb	jm	s	g-g	m	Origin not certainly known.
<i>Mortefontaine</i> . R. Syn. Heurre Mortefontaine.									Mentioned in an address before the North American Pomological Congress, 1849.
	Fr		vl	yrb					Favorably mentioned in Canadian Horticulturist, 1902, p. 403.
<i>Mortillet</i> . R. Syn. Beurre Mortillet.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Moscow No. 4</i> . NYC'90. [Possibly the same as Moscow]									Grown largely at Simbirsk, Russia, for cooking.
<i>Moscow</i> . EFABC'00.									
<i>Moskovka</i> . MHSC'82,57. FGAO'83,221.	Rus.	p	s		j			e	
<i>Mosselman</i> . L. Syn. Senateur Mosselman.	Eur.	robo	ms	gy	j	s	g	vl	
<i>Mother's Favorite</i> . BBL.									In the trial grounds of Benjamin Buckman, Farmingdale, Ill.
<i>Mouchouses</i> . L. Syn. Beurre des Mouchouses.	Fr	robt	l	y	dmj	v		e	In Leroy's collection at Angers, France.
<i>Mouchy</i> . L. Syn. Duchesse de Mouchy.	Fr	robtp	m	yr	mj	s	g	vl	Found at Beauvais, Breteuil, France.
<i>Moutte Bouche</i> . Cult'47,340. F276. Syn. of Bergamote d'Ete.									
<i>Moutte Bouche</i> . E'69,410. Syn. of Franc Real (Sum.).									
<i>Moutte Bouche</i> . C183. Pr'56. K'32,138,'41,120. E'54,331,'96,341. D'57,556,'69,803.									
<i>Moutte Bouche</i> . F281. Syn. of Long Green.									
<i>Moutte Bouche d'Automne</i> . Pr'58. Syn. of Long Green.									
<i>Moutte Bouche d'Automne</i> . D'69,894. Syn. of Long Green (Aut.).									
<i>Moullaise</i> . L. Syn. of Belle Moullaise.	Fr	oblp	l	g	dbj	sm		vl	Originated at Moulins, France; fruited in 1864.
<i>Mountain</i> . L. Syn. Green Mountain Boy.	Amer.	robopt	m	yr	mj	s	vg	m	Described by Elliott.

Mass....	robt p	ml	yeru	plm	vp	vg	i
Mount Vernon. Mass H'64, 42, 66, 46. Hort' '88, 67, '89, 367, 771, 314, 361, '72, 204. A. 1071-111, 14. D'68, 818. Altoria 68, 79. S'2. B'83, 376. T'75, 380, 85, 298, 97, 473. Bu6, 8. Syn. Walker's Seedling.							
Meadow. Fr. K'32, 138. S'2. B'81, 68, 803. Cult' 47, 340. Cole 59. E'54, 331, 36, 241. Syn. Little Muscat.							
Moyamensing. Syn. Muscat 17, 27, 40, 105, 240. S'2, 492, '53, 417. Cole 153. W'67, 2. B'51, 300. H'67. D'57, 528, 69, 818. A'62, 70. Gen 1X, 126. T'75, 255, 83, 273, 97, 455. Syn. Smith's Early Butter, Smith's Moyamensing.							
Muddy Brook. Mass H'64, 45.							
Muddy. T'97, 709. Syn. of Idaho.							
Mundetz. EFARC'00.							
Muscadelle. Pr22. Syn. Muscadelle a Calyce Caduque.							
Muscadelle a Calyce Caduque. Pr22. Syn. of Muscadelle.							
Muscadelle Rouge. Pr26. Syn. of Bouilly (Syn. of Muscadelle).							
Muscadel of Metz. R. Syn. Muscadelle of Metz.							
Muscadel-Pear of Metz. DomEncIV, 185. Syn. of Muscadelle of Metz.							
Muscadel d'Erie. D'69, 767. Syn. of Jarronelle (Fr.)							
Muscadeline. Magroff H'35, 364, 4, 63. D'45, 342, '57, 562, 69, 818. M'47, 94. N.A.P.C'46, 38. B'51, 300. W'67, 2. AGR'54, 336. T'75, 255, 85, 273, 97, 455. Kanli-82, 136. Ital'180, 568. Syn. of Brussels.							
Muscat Allemand. DomEncIV, 180. K'32, 145. Syn. of German Muscat.							
Muscat Allemande. C201. Th187. Pr81. H'177. D'69, 772. Syn. of German Muscat.							
Muscat a longue Queue. K'41, 122. Syn. of Rousselle.							
Muscat a longue queue d'Automne. Pr12, 136. Syn. of Muscat Fleuri.							
Muscat a longue Queue de la fin d'Automne. Pr10. K'32, 140. Syn. of Rousselle.							
Muscat d'Allemagne. D'69, 772. Syn. of German Muscat.							
Muscat d'Ambr. F281. D'69, 818. Syn. of Muscat Robert.							
Muscat d'Aout. K'32, 126. Gen F32, 277. Syn. of Aurate.							
Muscat de Nancy. Pr12. Syn. of Aurate.							
Muscat Fleuri. Pr56. D'45, 418. E'54, 331, 36, 241. Syn. of Long Green.							
Muscat Fleuri. Pr12, 129. K'41, 118. Syn. Flowered Autumn Muscat, Flowered Muscat.							
Muscat Fleuri. Pr12, 129. K'41, 118. Syn. Flowered Autumn Muscat, Flowered Muscat.							
Muscat l'Alleman. D'69, 772. Syn. of German Muscat.							
Muscat l'Allemand. Pr81. K'32, 145. D'69, 772. Syn. of German Muscat.							
Muscat l'Allemand. K'41, 126. F281. D'69, 772. Syn. of German Muscat.							
Muscat l'Allemand. Pr81. D'69, 772. Syn. of German Muscat.							
Muscat (of Germany). Pr81. D'69, 772. Syn. of German Muscat.							
Muscat (Petit of August). K'32, 131. Syn. of Robine.							
Muscat Petit. Pr10. D'45, 340, 57, 577, 69, 802. E'54, 397, 59, 442. F281. T'75, 552, 85, 567, 97, 709. Syn. of Little Muscat.							
Muscat Robert. DomEncIV, 187. Pr11. K'32, 130. Gen F33, 197, 97, 277. Cult' 39, 66. Magroff H'42, 356. D'45, 341, 57, 578, 69, 818. B'51, 301. W'67, 2. E'54, 397, 59, 423. F281. T'75, 552, 85, 567, 97, 709. Syn. Amber, D'Ambr, Beurre a la Reine, Early Queen, Great Musc pear of Cone, Gros Saint Jean Musque, La Princesse, Maiden of Flinders, Maiden of Xaintonge, Muscat d'Ambr, Muscat Robine, Musk Robine, Poire a la Reine, Poire d'Ambr, Pucelle de Xaintonge, Queen, Queen's Amber, Queen's Pear, Robine, Robert's Muskateller, St. Jean Musque Gros, The Princess, Virgin of Xaintonge.							

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Nell</i> . Cult 30.66. E 54.308. H144. Syn. of Niell.									
<i>New d'Alencon</i> . P 132. G 73.197. A 92.199. 41.167. MagoffH 44.127. D 45.430.									
<i>Nichol</i> . 57.47. 69.684. E 54.346. 59.355. Hov1.15. F263. Agr 62.190. Syn. of Winter.									
<i>Nelle Winter</i> . L17. Syn. of Winter Nells.									
<i>Nemours</i> . R. Syn. Duke de Nemours.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Nec Plus Meuris</i> . F208. Agr 62.180. EFA 67.00. Syn. of Anjou.									
<i>Nec Plus Meuris</i> . Gen F 33.197. Cult 39.06. MagoffH 41.286. D 53.444. 57.527. 49.									
820. F281. W H R 1.131. E 59.500. T 75.552. 83.567. 97.710. AofH 89.151. 90.262.									
Syn. of Meuris (Ne Plus).									
<i>Nec Plus Meuris</i> (of the French). Hort 1.61. K 41.164. E 54.316. 59.330. D 57.423.									
99.670. H178. F208. A 62.66. B 83.346. Syn. of Anjou.									
<i>Nerchman</i> . R. Syn. Doyenne Nerchman.									Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1847, p. 532.
<i>Neue Crassane</i> . D 69.825. Syn. of Passe Crassane.									
<i>Neufmaisons</i> . F281. MassH 58.74. MagoffH 59.41. Syn. of Serrurier.									
<i>Neue Maison</i> . F281. Syn. of Serrurier.									
<i>New Autumn</i> . E 54.331. 59.341. Syn. of Long Green.									Referred to in discussion as a promising new sort.
<i>New Bartram</i> . A 60.97.									
<i>New Bousnouch</i> . F200. Syn. of Bousnouch.									
<i>New Bridge</i> . P 204. MagoffH 43.131. D 98.820.									
<i>Newburg</i> . FGAofO 73.7. 83.									
<i>New Colmar</i> . L. Syn. Colmar d'Automne Nouveau.									Described by Lindley. Not described. Mr. Downing received this variety from France.
<i>New Frederick of Wurtemberg</i> . D 57.468. 69.684. F277. E 59.364. A 64.66. T 75.									
538. 85.553. 97.708. Syn. of Montgeron.									
<i>New Gray Winter Vergatieu</i> . F241. Syn. of Alencon.									
<i>Newhall</i> . MassH 67.37. 77.80. AHort A 99.79. A 99.50.100. D 69.820. Syn. Clapp.									
No. 12.									
<i>New Haven</i> . MagoffH 37.327. Syn. New Haven Beauty.									
<i>New Haven Beauty</i> . MagoffH 47.562. 51.572. Syn. of New Haven.									
<i>New Holmar</i> . F209. Syn. of Holmore.									
<i>New Long Rosewater</i> . MagoffH 44.37. 52.189. 53.104. MassH 44.64. Syn. of Rose (Sum).									
<i>New Pear</i> . E 54.332. 59.344. Syn. of Poiteau.									
<i>New St. Germain</i> . L. Syn. St. Germain Nouveau, Van Mons St. Germain.									
<i>New St. Germain</i> . D 45.447. 57.548. 69.837. E 54.335. 59.348. Syn. of Germain (Prince).									
<i>New Simon Bouvier</i> . L. Syn. Nouveau Simon Bouvier.									Raised by Dr. John Van Mons; regarded by him as promising.
									Published by Field, p. 281; not described.

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Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>No. 1699 of Van Mons.</i> MagoffH 42.64. D'45.302. 57,566, 69,692. E'54,390, 59,418. Syn. of Kenrick.									
<i>No. 347.</i> NebH 89,5590,245. Syn. of Gakovsk.									
<i>No. 606.</i> NebH 89,54. 90,244. Syn. of Hessemlanka.									
<i>Noel.</i> L. Syns. Apres Noel, Belle Apres Noel, Belle de Noel, Fondante de Noel, Fondante Noel, Sauveur Esperen.	Belg.	obtp	1	ycru	cofm	a	g	me	
<i>Noel.</i> E. 54,338, 39,371. Syn. of Christmas.									
<i>Nordmain.</i> Cult 47,349. D'37,473, 66,696. L15. Syn. of Rance.			m					me	An old and perhaps worthless variety.
<i>Noir grain.</i> F161. K'32,180. Syns. Beurre Noir Grain, Black Seeded, Black Seeded Nursey.									
<i>Nordic.</i> D'57,646. F277. T'97,710. Syn. of Angletierre.									
<i>Nordic.</i> D'57,431, 99,729. Syn. of Dearborn Seedling.									
<i>Nonholm.</i> R. Syn. Nonholm Seedling.									
<i>Nonholm Seedling.</i> MagoffH 43,131. Syn. of Nonholm	N. Y.	rob	a	yrn	dimj	sv		1	Published by Magazine of Horticulture, 1843, p. 131.
<i>Nonpareil.</i> MagoffH 55,198,225. E'59,400. D'69,821.									Raised by Judge Livingston, of New York.
<i>Non-Pareil Bergamot.</i> DomEncIV 186. Th188. Syn. of Sanspareil.									
<i>Nonpareille.</i> D'69,702. Syn. of Sanspareil.	Mass.								Originated by Dr. S. A. Shurtleff, Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1862.
<i>Norfolk County.</i> MassH'66,44.									
<i>Norris Pear.</i> D'69,791. Syn. of Gratiot.									
<i>Northford Sckel.</i> Dapl54. A'81,123. Syn. of Talmadge.									
<i>Northford Seedling.</i> (1P'99,153. Syn. of Talmadge.									
<i>Notaine Minot.</i> Hort'73,37. Syn. of Notarie.									
<i>Notarie.</i> L. Syns. Notaine Minot, Notarie Minot.	Belg.	oltp	m	gyru	mj	sp		m	Raised by Dr. John Van Mons. Published in Album of Pomology.
<i>Notarie Minot.</i> MagoffH 51,67, 52,474. D'69,821. Syn. of Notarie.									
<i>Noue-Cours Complet.</i> K'41,131. Syn. of Brussels.									
<i>Nouveau Maison.</i> D'69,854. Syn. of Serrurier.									
<i>Nouveau Minzon.</i> D'69,854. Syn. of Serrurier.									
<i>Nouveau Poiteau.</i> Hort'40,140, 51,112. MagoffH 47,451, 50,545, 51,441, 53,20. Cult-183,344. B'51,318, '83,382. AGR'83,282, 54,245. C'GenH'202. E'54,332, 59,344. D'57,527, 69,821, 111,78. F260. A'62,70. T'75,265, 85,283, 97,463. Syn. of Poiteau.									
<i>Nouveau Simon Bourcier.</i> F281. Syn. of New Simon Bouvier.									
<i>Nouvelle.</i> F282. E'59,409. Syn. of Saint Dorothy.									
<i>Nouvelle Boussoir.</i> F200,279. Syn. of Boussoir.									
<i>Nouvelle d'Orf.</i> D'57,436, 69,890. F279. AGR'62,183. Syn. of White Doyenne.									
<i>Nouvelle Dore.</i> MagoffH 43,131.									
<i>Nouville Fautie.</i> MagoffH 57,155,302. D'69,822. AOH'92,277. EFABC'00. Syn. of Fulvic.									Not described.
<i>Nouvette Gagno a Henze.</i> F280. Syn. of Flemish.									

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Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Otoreika</i> . Gb. Syn. of Keepeake.									
<i>Otomonet</i> . D'69,862. Syn. of Archduke.									
<i>Olsan</i> . AotH'91,206.			la						Not described. Published in the Horticulturist, 1857, p. 189.
<i>Olsan</i> . R. Syn. Bergamotte d'Olsan.									Not described.
<i>Okago</i> . AotH'91,206.									
<i>Oken</i> . D'69,822. Syns. Beurre Oken, Cent Couronnes, L'Oken d'Hiver, Oken d'Hiver, Winter Oken.	Belg.	rob	m	gb	fm	v	g-p	m	
<i>Oken d'Hiver</i> . Cult'47,340. MagofH'52,151. AgR'54,243. D'69,822. Syn. of Oken.									Being tested by Benjamin Buck- man, Farmingdale, Ill.
<i>Old Crassane</i> . BBL.									Name applied to a class of perry pears.
<i>Oldfield</i> . Pr210. MagofH'37,60. GenF'37,278. CGenX239.	Eng	t	s	gru					In Benjamin Buckman's trial or- chard, Farmingdale, Ill.
<i>Old Home</i> . BBL.									
<i>Old Kentucky Home</i> (of Stark Bros.). SBro. IIIH'96,45,194,98,336,99,203. Syn. of Kentucky.									
<i>Oliver</i> . L. Syn. Oliver's Russet.	Mass	r	ms	ycru	oo	p	p	me	Origin with Miss Oliver, of Lynn, Mass.
<i>Oliver's Russet</i> . MagofH'44,212,48,337,51,472. Cole163. F'54,398,59,423. D'57,579,69,822. F274. T'75,532,85,567,97,710. Syn. of Oliver.									
<i>Olvier</i> . L. Syn. Olivier de Serres.	Fr.	r	ml	yrro	dmj	sp		vl	Origin with M. Boisbunel, of Rouen, France.
<i>Olivier de Serres</i> . D'69,822. AloHIX'37. MoH'87,96. AotH'91,206. WNYH'93,4,96,25. E&B'94,42. IIIH'96,204. HMM'97,10. Syn. of Olivier.									
<i>Omiti Pacha</i> . MagofH'53,57. D'57,549,69,830. E'69,400. F281. A'60,99. AloH'V111,223. T'75,278,85,286,97,473. MassH'76,93. Syn. of Menin.	N. Y.	r	ms	yrro	cojm		g	me	Origin in western New York; per- haps in Oneida County.
<i>Oneida</i> . D'69,823.	Wis.								This pear is from seedlings raised by C. P. Rogers. Published in Horticultural Art Journal 1888, p. 74.
<i>Onethird</i> . IaH'79,219.									Mr. Downing thought it a seedling of western New York, while a correspondent of the Horticul- turist, 1847, p. 243 claims its origin for Farmington, Conn.
<i>Onga</i> . R. Syn. Blauquet St. Onga.	Conn.?	ovp	l	yrro	bmjg	s	g-yg	m	
<i>Onondaga</i> . Mag ofH'46,492. Hort'47,322. Cult'48,207,51,210. Cole165. AgR'50,94,55,337. WHR11,350. Hov1,21. B'51,307,53,372. E'54,331,59,401. H195. F251. D'57,528,59,823. A'62,70. AHortA'88,91. T'75,265,85,283,97,493. Wn1,326,11,336,111,259. AHM257. Syns. Francis Borgia, Klimer, Onondaga Seedling, Onondaga Seed-ling (of some), Orange, Swan, Orange.									
<i>Onondaga Seedling</i> . Hort'47,322. Hov1,21. E'54,332,59,401. Syn. of Onondaga.									
<i>Onondaga Seedling</i> (of some collections in western New York). Hov1,21. Syn. of Onondaga.									
<i>Ontario</i> . A'56,200. MagofH'57,110. Hort'57,112,530,68,331. D'57,529,69,524. AHortA'69,79. Cult'57,372. F274. E'59,402. CGenIX,191,X,286. T'75,563,85,823,97,493.	N. Y.	oblp	m	yrro	mjbg	s	g-yg	me	Originated at Geneva, Ontario County, N. Y.

Orange. R. Syn. Chevalier d'Onyn	Orange. Th188. Pr40. MagoffH'90,296. D'99,824. MassH'74,152. GaH'92,50. Syns. Orange d'Automne, Orange Rouge, Red Orange. Orange (Mass.) MassH'66,44	Mass.	r	m	yr	m	s	me	Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1855, p. 146. Old and probably valueless. Originated by Dr. S. A. Shurtieff at Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1862.
Orange. A'54,239. '75,101, '79,81. HMHS15,16. Syn. of American Orange.									
Orange. F231. Syn. of Onondaga.									
Orange Bergamot. GaH'1857, C26. K'32,139. Cult'59,66. WHRIV,204. Agr									
Orange Bergamot (erroneously). Hort 94,483. D'57,534, '69,822. Syn of Philadelphia.									
Orange Bergamotte. K'41,127. E'54,378, '59,402. D'57,579, '69,824. Syn. of Orange Bergamotte.									
Orange d'Automne. Pr40. D'69,824. Syn. of Orange.									
Orange d'Eté. Pr25. Syn. of D'99,824.									
Orange d'Eté. Pr40. K'41,118. D'69,824. Syn. of Musk Orange.									
Orange d'Hiver. C196. Pr41. K41,125. E'54,401, '59,425. D'57,579, '69,824. F231. Syn. of Winter Orange.									
Orange d'Hiver. SW. Syn. of Winter Orange.									
Orange Mandarin. D'69,824. Syn. of Mandarin.									
Orange Musk. Pr40. D'69,824. Syn. of Musk Orange.									
Orange Musque. C183. Pr40. K'32,130, '41,119. MagoffH'43,131. H178. D'69,824. Syn. of Musk Orange.									
Orange Pear. E'54,378, '59,402. Syn. of Orange Bergamot.									
Orange (Princess). L. Syns. Princesses Couquette, Princesses Couquette, Princesses d'Orange, Princesses of Orange.									
Orange Rouge. Pr40. K'41,119. MagoffH'43,131. A'54,239. D'69,824. Syn. of Orange.									
Orange Russet. AoffH'92,277.									
Orange Sept. L. Syn. September Orange.									
Orange Striped. L. Syns. Bigarrade, Great Orange, La Villaine d'Anjou, Orange Tulipe, Folre aux Mouches, Folre Tulipe, Striped Orange, Tulip or Fly-pear, Tulip Pear, Villaine d'Anjou.									
Orange Tulipe. K'32,130, '41,120. Pr42. MagoffH'43,131, '50,296. A'54,239. D'69,824. Syn. of Orange Striped.									
Orchard. SW.									
Ordynka. CanH'94,292.									
Oregon. MagoffH'51,473.									
Orel. IaB3. IIIH'96,178, '04,205.									
Orel No. 16. IIIH'96,187. [Possibly not named and disseminated].									
Orel No. 16. CanExFR'96,136 [possibly not named and disseminated].									
Orléans. T'97,460. Syns. Beurre St. Nicholas, Doyenne Fondante, Duc d'Orléans, Duchesse d'Orléans, Duchesse of Orleans, St. Nicholas.									
Orpha. EFABC'00. CanExFR'02,390.									
Orange. R. Syn. Chevalier d'Onyn									
Orange. Th188. Pr40. MagoffH'90,296. D'99,824. MassH'74,152. GaH'92,50. Syns. Orange d'Automne, Orange Rouge, Red Orange. Orange (Mass.) MassH'66,44									
Orange. A'54,239. '75,101, '79,81. HMHS15,16. Syn. of American Orange.									
Orange. F231. Syn. of Onondaga.									
Orange Bergamot. GaH'1857, C26. K'32,139. Cult'59,66. WHRIV,204. Agr									
Orange Bergamot (erroneously). Hort 94,483. D'57,534, '69,822. Syn of Philadelphia.									
Orange Bergamotte. K'41,127. E'54,378, '59,402. D'57,579, '69,824. Syn. of Orange Bergamotte.									
Orange d'Automne. Pr40. D'69,824. Syn. of Orange.									
Orange d'Eté. Pr25. Syn. of D'99,824.									
Orange d'Eté. Pr40. K'41,118. D'69,824. Syn. of Musk Orange.									
Orange d'Hiver. C196. Pr41. K41,125. E'54,401, '59,425. D'57,579, '69,824. F231. Syn. of Winter Orange.									
Orange d'Hiver. SW. Syn. of Winter Orange.									
Orange Mandarin. D'69,824. Syn. of Mandarin.									
Orange Musk. Pr40. D'69,824. Syn. of Musk Orange.									
Orange Musque. C183. Pr40. K'32,130, '41,119. MagoffH'43,131. H178. D'69,824. Syn. of Musk Orange.									
Orange Pear. E'54,378, '59,402. Syn. of Orange Bergamot.									
Orange (Princess). L. Syns. Princesses Couquette, Princesses Couquette, Princesses d'Orange, Princesses of Orange.									
Orange Rouge. Pr40. K'41,119. MagoffH'43,131. A'54,239. D'69,824. Syn. of Orange.									
Orange Russet. AoffH'92,277.									
Orange Sept. L. Syn. September Orange.									
Orange Striped. L. Syns. Bigarrade, Great Orange, La Villaine d'Anjou, Orange Tulipe, Folre aux Mouches, Folre Tulipe, Striped Orange, Tulip or Fly-pear, Tulip Pear, Villaine d'Anjou.									
Orange Tulipe. K'32,130, '41,120. Pr42. MagoffH'43,131, '50,296. A'54,239. D'69,824. Syn. of Orange Striped.									
Orchard. SW.									
Ordynka. CanH'94,292.									
Oregon. MagoffH'51,473.									
Orel. IaB3. IIIH'96,178, '04,205.									
Orel No. 16. IIIH'96,187. [Possibly not named and disseminated].									
Orel No. 16. CanExFR'96,136 [possibly not named and disseminated].									
Orléans. T'97,460. Syns. Beurre St. Nicholas, Doyenne Fondante, Duc d'Orléans, Duchesse d'Orléans, Duchesse of Orleans, St. Nicholas.									
Orpha. EFABC'00. CanExFR'02,390.									

[illegible]

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Petit Ronasdel.</i> Pr20. K'32,131. GenF'37,277. D'45,343, 37,581, 69,846. E'54,399, 78,424. F282. T'75,553, 85,568, 97,711. Syn. of Rheims.									
<i>Petit St. Jean.</i> Pr9. K'32,131, 41,117. Syn. of Harvest.									
<i>Petit St. Jean.</i> Pr9. D'69,638. Syn. of Joazeur.									
<i>Petre.</i> K'32,197, 41,104. Magoth'37,457, 38,83, 47,457, 33,452. M'38,84, 44,71, 47,73. D'45,403, 57,553, 69,832. Hort'47,175, 50,253. Cole164. E'54,390, 56,404. MassH'47, 80. B'51,398. H180. F270. T'75,578, 85,596, 97,473. A'90,15.	Pa.	obo	ml	ygru	bgm	p	g-vg	m	Originated in Bartram's Garden, Philadelphia, Pa.
<i>Petalosse.</i> Pr27. D'69,760. Syn. of Figue.									
<i>Pitalagrapia Aicene.</i> EFABC'60. Syn. of Kibine.									
<i>Pfisterer.</i> R. Syn. of Pfister's Meadow.									
<i>Pfister's Meadow.</i> WHRIV, 431. Syn. of Pfister.									
<i>Pfirschnirne.</i> D'69,831. Syn. of peach.									
<i>Pfirschnirne.</i> Gb. Jall'82,83. MISC'24,60. FGA'10'83,223. Syn. of Pound.									
<i>Philadelphia.</i> Magoth'34,401. T'69,57,493. A'54,98, 55,198. Cnt'64,339. Agr'36,405. D'57,334, 69,832. F274. GH'77,21. T'75,278, 85,286, 97,473. Syns. Latch, Orange Bergamot (citronous?), Philadelphia Latch.	Pa.	robtp	l	yrn	cobjm	sp	g	me	Originated near Philadelphia, Pa.
<i>Philadelphia Latch.</i> FG'34, 405, 571. Syn. of Philadelphia.									
<i>Philip C. DeLoose.</i> D'69,634. T'97,711. Syn. of DeLoose.									
<i>Philip de Ponce.</i> GenF'33,198. K'41,160. D'45,425, 57,428, 69,751. E'54,317, 56,331. F277. Agr'62,180. Syn. of Easter Beurre.									
<i>Philip Goez.</i> D'57,535, 69,833. F282. E'56,404. PaFS'71,68. T'75,553, 85,568, 97 711. Syn. of Goez.									
<i>Philippot.</i> R. Syn. Bergamot Philippot.									
<i>Philip Goez.</i> Dapl'55. A'75,68. Syn. of Mello.									
<i>Philip Stire.</i> D'69,850. Syn. of Stevens.									
<i>Phillips.</i> MassH'48,101. Magoth'50,294. A'54,239. Syn. Phillips' Seedling.	R. I.								
<i>Phillips' Seedling.</i> W'54H'75,67. Syn. of Phillips.									
<i>Philopocna.</i> Agr'89,444. A'91,124. IndH'98,100. YB'02,474. WNYH'04,24. Syn. Philopocna. C/O H8'91,20. Syn. of Philopocna.	Ind.	oblp	ms	yrn	jm	vs	vg-b	m	Originated with Reuben Ragan, Putnam County, Ind.
<i>Pickering.</i> A'75,102. Syns. English Warden, Warden.	Belg.	rob	s	yrn	jm	v	g-vg	me	Mr. Manning considered this distinct from Pound.
<i>Pickering.</i> K'32,131, 41,129. GenF'33,197. D'45,448. Syn. of Tonneau.									
<i>Pickering Pear.</i> E'54,334, 56,346. D'57,537, 69,835. Syn. of Pound.									
<i>Pickering's Warden.</i> D'69,835. Syn. of Pound.									
<i>Pickering's Warden.</i> GenF'33,192. Syn. of Tonneau.									
<i>Piquery.</i> D'69,871. Syn. of Urbanista.									
<i>Piquet.</i> R. Syn. Bergamot Piquet.									Published by Magazine of Horticulture, 1852, p. 38.

Pie IX. MassH'43.21. MagolH'44.86. Hort'54.87. Agr'56.331. D'57.535, '69.333. Syns. Pio IX, Plus IX. <i>Pierre's Seedling.</i> MagolH'47.323. Syn. of <i>Pierre</i> . <i>Pierre</i> . L. Syn. Besi de la Pierre, Besi de la Pierre, Saint Pierre.	Belg....	rp	ml	yr	jm	v	g-vg	m	Very variable in quality, says Mr. Downing. Not described.
Pierre Cornelle. EFABC'00. Syn. of Cornelle. Pierre Jagneaux. EFABC'00. Syn. of Joigneaux. Pierre Touraine. EFABC'00. Syn. of Touraine. Plisbury. IllH'96.204.	Fr....	ov	sm	y	dmj	v		m	Origin Auvergne, France; introduced in 1862.
Pinehart. L. Syn. Leonie Pinehart. <i>Pine pike.</i> Pinehart. D'43.131. Syn. of Fasse Cuirar. Agr'53.131. D'43.131. Syn. of Fasse Cuirar. HovII.85. E'54.322, '56.336. F24.	Belg....	robo	m	gyru	jm	s	vg	m	In the trial collections at Illinois experiment stations.
Pineapple. Cult'45.304. MagolH'58.503. Hort'58.106.473.482.150.170.775.211. A'59.54. '62.70. D'60.833. A'60.111.139. HMHS15. T'75.256, '85.274. '97.455. E'59.404. Syn. Boston. Early Decadence. Graves, Hebron, Lebanon, Penneo, Summer Virgileux Virgileux, Stillman's Russell.	Conn....	robp	ms	yr	djm	s	g	me	Origin claimed for Columbia, Tolland County, Conn.
Pineau. MagolH'43.131. Pio IX. F282. Syn. of Pio IX. Pionelle. D'60.704. Syn. of Bon Christian Fondante. Piper. E'54.334, '59.345. D'60.833. Syn. of Pound. Piper. D'45.448. Syn. of Tonneau. Piquet. L. Syn. Bergamotte Piquet. Pirolle Marol. F281. Syn. of Jammetrie. Pistolette. Pr27. D'60.700. Syn. of Figue.									Not described.
Pitford Pear. K'32.180. Syn. of Pitford. Pitfour. GenF'33.197. Cult'39.66. K'41.130. MagolH'43.131.50.296. MassH'46. 131. A'54.239. Syn. Pitfour. Pitmaston. FESoFO'02.12. CanH'03.126. AHM250. Syns. Pitmaston Duchess, Pitmaston Duchesse d'Angouleme. Pitmaston Duchesse. AJOH'11.230. A'75.37.46, '77.50. T'75.553, '85.568, '97.711. B'83.373. AofII'91.296. EFABC'00. AHM250. Syn. of Pitmaston. Pitmaston Duchesse d'Angouleme. D'60.833. Agr'75.376. A'71.55. T'85.568. WnI.333.11342. CanH'03.120. Syn. of Pitmaston.	Eng....	obp	l	ru	m			ml	Brought to America in 1832.
Pitson. Garm'86.14.	Eng....	obl	vl	yr	mbj			m	Raised by John Williams, of Pitmaston, England.
Pitt. L. Syns. Pitt's Marie Louise, Pitt's Prolific, Pitt's Prolific Marie, Pitt's Surpass Marie, Surpass Marie Louise (incorrectly). Pitt's Marie Louise. MassH'45.88. Cult'47.340. MagolH'50.296. A'54.239. E'54. 338. E'54.398, '59.423. Syn. of Pitt. Pitt's Prolific. MassH'44.66. D'45.404.57.576. '69.834. Cult'47.340. A'54.238. E'54. 338, '59.423. H181. F282. T'85.569, '97.711. Syn. of Pitt. Pitt's Prolific Marie. K41.153. Syn. of Pitt. Pitt's Surpass Marie. D'45.404.57.576. '69.834. Cult'47.340. E'54.398, '59.423. F282. Syn. of Pitt. Pitas IX. WHRII.660. HEHD'73. E'59.404. T'75.553, '85.568, '97.711. B'83.383. Syn. of Pio IX. Pitatenget. D'60.834. AHortA'71.66. A'71.56. Piscart. MassH'71.39. Platt. D'57.535, '69.333. F274. B'83.383. Syn. Platt's Seedling.	Belg....	p obo rob	m m m	gyru yrb yr	jm v jum		g-vg g	ml m	Probably not desirable. Originated in Clinton County, N. Y.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Platt's Bergamot</i> . K 41,130. Magoff H 50,296, 59,150. A 54,229. Syn. of Bergamot (Platt).									
<i>Platt's Bergamot</i> (?). A 53,58. Magoff H 59,150. Syn. of Church.									
<i>Platt's Seedling</i> . Magoff H 50,545. D 57,535, 59,335. Syn. of Platt.	For.								Published by Field, p. 276; not described.
<i>Plessis</i> . L. Syn. Belle du Plessis.									
<i>Piombastel</i> . Mass H 46,88. Magoff H 46,295. E 54,381, 59,410. I 1181. F 282. T 85,285. D 69,851. Syn. of Archangel.									
<i>Ploakul</i> . R. Syn. Bergamotte Ploakul.									
<i>Ploagastel</i> . E 54,381, 59,410. Syn. of Archangel.									
<i>Ploagastel</i> . Magoff H 46,146. Hov H 71. E 54,381, 59,410. Hort 98,202. T 75.									
<i>Plymouth</i> . A 52,27. E 54,318, 59,334. Agr 62,182. Syn. of Boussock.	Mass.	obop	ms	ycru	jm		g-vg	me	Originated at Quincy, Mass.
<i>Pocahontas</i> . Magoff H 47,525, 53,524, 59,474. Hort 54,85. A 54,155. D 57,535, 59.	S. C.	obl	m	yb		v		me	Originated at Pomaria, S. C.; named for J. R. Foinsett. Described by Leroy.
<i>Poinsett</i> . A 67,190. E 54,405. Mass H 73,97. T 75,553, 85,569, 97,711.									
<i>Pointelle</i> . L. Syn. Beurre Pointelle de Roux.	Belg.	obtp	m	gr	dmj	s	g	m	Very similar to Boac; possibly the same.
<i>Poire a deux tetes</i> . F 226. Syn. of Two Headed.									
<i>Poire a deux yeux</i> . F 126. Syn. of Two Eyes.									
<i>Poire a Goulet</i> . F 97. D 45,136, 57,574, 69,779. E 54,395, 59,422. Syn. of Gillogil.									
<i>Poire a la Reine</i> . F 17. K 23,123. F 78. D 59,829. Syn. of Little Marquet.									
<i>Poire a la Reine</i> . F 31. K 23,123. Gen 33,197, 37,271. D 46,341, 57,578, 69,818.									
<i>Poire Ananas</i> . D 45,349. E 54,339, 59,323. Syn. of Ananas d'Ete.									
<i>Poire Ananas</i> . D 57,597. F 280. E 59,380. F 280. Syn. of Henry IV.									
<i>Poire Andouille</i> . Hort 54,418.									
<i>Poire Anglique</i> . P 79. K 32,142. Syn. of Angellique.									
<i>Poir d'Amiral</i> . P 86. Syn. of Admiral.									
<i>Poireau</i> . F 77. D 69,671. Syn. of Parthenay.									
<i>Poire aux Monches</i> . P 82. K 32,130. D 69,825. Syn. of Orange Striped.									
<i>Poire Beute</i> . Dom Enc IV 187. Syn. of Blessed.									
<i>Poire Bracodol d'Espal</i> . D 69,707. Syn. of Braconot.									
<i>Poire Briffault</i> . Magoff H 55,317. Syn. of Briffault.									
<i>Poire Caliste</i> . Mass H 51,189.									
<i>Poire Caratour</i> . F 78. Syn. of Van Marum.									
<i>Poire Gentille</i> . F 59,403. D 69,828. Syn. of Portugal.									
<i>Poire Cure</i> . Mass H 51,189. Can H 94,261. Syn. of Vasachanka.									
<i>Poire Ducey</i> . D 57,435, 69,760. F 30. E 59,337. Agr 62,184. Syn. of Flemish.									
<i>Poire d'Abondance</i> . P 87. K 41,120. Hort 53,31. E 54,381, 59,405. D 57,533, 59,656.									
<i>P 778</i> . T 75,553, 85,569, 97,711. Syn. of Mon Dieu.									Not described.

[illegible]

This may be Worcester; synonym
Iron Pear.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Ortgin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Poire de Jersey</i> . Hov139. Agr'62,185. Syn. of Louise.									
<i>Poire de Lepine</i> . D'57,586, '80,801. F282. T'75,553, '85,569, '97,712. Syn. of Lepine.									
<i>Poire delices de Froymennes</i> . MagofH'55,189. Syn. of Froymennes.									
<i>Poire de Limon</i> . Pr43. Gen F'33,196. F224,279. Hov1183. Agr'62,183. D'69.									
880. Syn. of White Doyenne.									
<i>Poire de Liere</i> . Pr117. Syn. of French Pound.									
<i>Poire de Louvain</i> . Pr235. K'32,182, '41,150. D'45,383, '57,486, '69,734. Cult'47,340.									
E'54,361, '69,375. F279. Syn. of Louvain.									
<i>Poire de Malthe</i> . Pr38. Syn. of Rose (Sum.)									
<i>Poire de M. Monnet</i> . Cult'47,340. Gen F'37,278. Syn. of Diel									
<i>Poire de Melon</i> . K'32,189, '41,156. MagofH'51,189. MagofH'52,39									
<i>Poire de Mons</i> . K'41,150. Syn. of Spoochberch.									
<i>Poire de Mons</i> . Hov113. Syn. of Spoochberch.									
<i>Poire de Naples</i> . Pr78. K'41,125. Syn. of Lent.									
<i>Poire d'Orfuf</i> . Pr36. K'41,119. Syn. of Swan Egg.									
<i>Poire d'Oignon</i> . Pr38. Syn. of Rose (Sum.)									
<i>Poire d'Oignon</i> . Pr24. Syn. of Archduke.									
<i>Poire de Payency</i> . Pr58. MagofH'48,57. E'54,334, '59,347. D'69,830. Syn. of Payency.									
<i>Poire de Pendent</i> . Pr84. Syn. of Pendent.									
<i>Poire de Perigord</i> . Pr8. E'54,334, '59,347. Syn. of Payency.									
<i>Poire de Perail</i> . Pr115. D'69,760. Syn. of Flemish.									
<i>Poire de Pise</i> . Pr14. Syn. of Augustin.									
<i>Poire de Preter</i> . K'41,125. Syn. of Preter.									
<i>Poire de Preter</i> . Pr108. Syn. of Preter.									
<i>Poire de Prince</i> . K'32,130. D'69,837. Syn. of Prince.									
<i>Poire de Prince</i> . Pr43. Syn. of The Prince.									
<i>Poire de Printemps</i> . D'57,544, '69,838. F282. E'59,409. Syn. of Sovereign (Spring)									
<i>Poire de Rose</i> . Pr23. K'32,132. D'45,345, '57,583, '69,863. E'54,369, '59,424. F282.									
Syn. of Rose (Sum.)									
<i>Poire de Saint Pere</i> . K'32,148, '41,126. Syn. of Saint Pere.									
<i>Poire des Bois</i> . Pr212. Syn. of Flemish.									
<i>Poire des Champs des Charitoux</i> . Pr37. Syn. of Charitoux.									
<i>Poire des Charitoux</i> . Pr37. Syn. of Charitoux.									
<i>Poire des Chausseurs</i> . MagofH'53,40. D'57,536, '69,735. F279,282. T'75,553, '85,569, '97,712. Syn. of Chausseurs.									
<i>Poire des Deux Soeurs</i> . E'59,405.									
<i>Poire de Selgneur</i> . Pr43. Gen F'33,196. D'45,378, '57,436. Hov1183. F224.									
Agr'62,183. Syn. of White Doyenne.									
<i>Poire des Eparavains</i> . H.A.J.'89,37. Syn. of Angouleme.									
<i>Poire de Sillerie</i> . Gen F'37,277. Syn. of Cascolette.									
	For...	oblp	1	g	j	s		ml	Description from Elliott, 1859, p. 405.

Poire de Simon (of the French). D'45,378,'57,436. Syn. of White Doyenne.	
Poire des Indes. D'69,728. Syn. of Malvidae.	
Poire de 16 Ounces. D'69,772. Syn. of Giffard.	
Poire Die Nonnes. D'59,620. Syn. of Lagnelle (Fr.).	Syn. of Originals....
Poire du Stuehard. D'69,847. Syn. of Stuehard.	
Poire Des Trois Jours. K'41,140. Syn. of Trois Jours.	
Poire de la Table de Princes. P'432. Gen.F'37,277. D'45,337,'57,514,'69,768. E'54,	
373,'69,393. F'280. Syn. of Jorxonnelle (Eng.).	
MagoH'54,457,'55,180,'57,502. E'59,405. Syn. of Tongres.	
Poire de Tonneau. K'52,151,'41,129. Syn. of Tonneau.	
Poire d'une Livre. K'41,124. Syn. of Livre.	
Poire Deux Sœurs. MagoH'54,460. Hort'54,420. Syn. of Sisters.	
Poire de Vigne. Fras. Syn. of Vigne.	
Poire Douce. Fr'o. Syn. of Anguelle.	
Poire du Coureux Popoloque. GarM'72,250. Syn. of Souvenir.	
Poire du Doyen. D'69,880. Syn. of White Doyenne.	
Poire du Jardin. C'95. H'81. D'69,770. Syn. of Garden.	
Poire du Portugal. P'91. Syn. of Passans.	
Poire Durandou. MagoH'57,502. D'57,488,'69,735. T'85,500. Syn. of Tongres.	
Poire du Euseleat. P'21. Syn. of Summer King.	
Poire du Vitrier. K'32,139,'41,123. Syn. of Vitrier.	
Poire Episcopale. K'41,109.	
Poire Fleurie. MagoH'48,111. Syn. of Fleurite.	
Poire Figue. P'20. Syn. of Beauty (Sum.)	
Poire Fige. P'27. Syn. of Figue.	
Poire Grandon. D'69,688. Syn. of Gondron.	
Poire Gerardo. MassH'51,180. MagoH'52,39. D'69,771. Syn. of Gerardo.	
Poire Giffard. D'69,680. Syn. of Giffard.	
Poire-glace. GenF'33,197. D'45,450,'57,584,'69,877. E'54,400,'59,425. F'283. Syn. of Virgoulouse.	
Poire Goubali. D'69,690. Syn. of Goubalt.	
Poire Guillaume. E'54,311,'59,324. AgR'62,170. T'75,553,'85,569,'97,712. Syn. of Bartlett.	
Poire Guillaume (of the French). D'45,334,'57,421,'69,666. Hort'53,350. F'76. Syn. of Bartlett.	
Poire hatterica or lativacu. P'13. Syn. of Madeline.	
Poire Ha. E'59,357. Syn. of Mello.	
Poire Ha. MassH'51,180. MagoH'52,39,'53,104. AJofHVIII,222. D'69,850. Syn. of Manin.	
Poire Liard. D'57,526,'69,319. F'249. Syn. of Napoleon.	
Poire Livre. CanH'94,293.	
Poire Lourain. MagoH'55,185. Syn. of Louvain.	
Poire Maine. P'69. K'32,144,'41,125. GenF'37,278. Syn. of Colmar.	
Poire Mid. CanH'94,292. Syn. of Medofka.	
Poire Monieur. P'43. D'45,378,'57,436. F'294. Agr'62,183. Syn. of White Doyenne.	
Poire Monieur Le'Cure. K'41,159. Syn. of Vlear.	
Poire Napoleon. D'69,819. Syn. of Napoleon.	
Poire Nedge. GenF'33,196. D'45,378,'57,436. HorII,85. AgR'62,183. T'75,563,'85,569,'97,712. Syn. of White Doyenne.	
Poire Nell. K'32,182,'41,150. Cult'47,340. Maash'51,180. MagoH'52,151. E'54,398. Syn. of Nell.	

Poltickshav. Magoff 43, 131. Galf 90, 61.		Rus. ?							Not described. Not described. Not described.
Pollavakala. Pollava. Gb. Syn. Pollavaykaya.		Rus. ?							
Pollastakya. Gb. Syn. Pollitaya.									
Pomerania. Gb. Syn. Pomeranzhimine.		Rus. ?							Brought to America in 1882 In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, D. C.
Pomeranovka. CanEx FR 96, 139.									In Field's undescribed list.
Pomeranzzhirne. Gb. Syn. of Pomerania.									
Pomme. F282. Syn. Pomme Poire.		For.							
Pomme Poire. K'4, 149. A'54, 239. Syn. of Pomme.									
Pomoir. M'47, 96. D'69, 662. Syn. of Apple.		Fr.	m	gy	bjm	s	g-vg	m	Originated at Rouen, France, in 1856. Published by Magazine of Horti- culture, 1839, p. 37; not described.
Pomologie. L. Syn. Congress Pomologique, Triomphe de la Pomologie, Triom- phe de Pomologieue.			obtp	m					
Poad. R. Syn. Pond Lily.									
Pond Lily. Magoff H'30, 37. Syn. of Pond .									
Pope. A'60, 51, 73, 119. Syn. of Bonpers.									
Pope's Quaker. Magoff H'36, 456, 37, 15. MassH'44, 69. E'54, 398, '59, 423. A'54, 239. H'182. D'57, 580, 60, 834. F274. T'75, 553, 55, 569, '97, 712. Syn. of Quaker.									Exhibited by Robert Manning in 1844.
Pope Russet. R. Syn. Pope's Russet.									
Pope's Russet. Magof 43, 33. MassH'44, 60. A'54, 239. Syn. of Pope Russet.									
Pope's Scarlet Major. Magoff 37, 15. MassH'37, 37. D'45, 406, '57, 580, 69, '834. E'54, 338, '59, 423. A'54, 239. H'181. F274. Syn. of Major.		Mass.							Originated by Dr. S. A. Shurtleff at Brookline, Mass.
Porter. MassH'66, 44.									
Portugal. L. Syna. Bergamotte, Butter (of Michigan), Chenille, Dasalonia, Early Bergamot (of Wisconsin), Miller's Early, Passans da Portugal, Passans du Portugal, Poire Chenille, Summer Portugal.			robl	s	ybr	jbd	g	me	
Possey. P'95, 38. A'97, 44.		Ind.?	p	m	y	b	sa	g-vg	m
Pots. D'69, 773. Syn. of Glout Moreau.		Pa.							m
Pottistown. HB&T.									
Pouchet. Dap'55. Syn. of Ananas.									
Pound. Dec'Enc'y IV, 188. GarCalust'. C306. Th'188. P'149. K'32, 151, '41, 129, M'38, 96, 44, 86, '47, 91. SW. IndF'40, 105. D'45, 445, '57, 537, '69, 835, Cole 174. E'54, 234, 769, 346. H'120. F284. T'73, 291, '85, 308, '97, 481. Wn'1, 328. Syns. Abbe Mongeun, Anderson, Angora, Beute of Turveuren, Beauty of Turveuren, Belle Angevine, Belle de Jersey, Bellissime d'Hives du Bur Bertheilrn, Bolivar, Bolivar d'Hiver, Bretagne le Cour, Chamber's Large, Comtee de Fontlon, Comtesse de Terweuren, Cordeletier, d'Horticulture, Dr. Udale's Warden, Duchesse de Berry, Duchesse de Berry d'Hiver, DuTonneau, English Bell, Faux Bolivar, Funtoevka, German Baker, Gros fin or long d'Hiver, Grosse Dame Jeanne, Grosse de Bruxelles, La Quintyne, Large Cordeletier, Lent St. Germain, Louise Bonne d'Hiver, Pfund- birne, Pickering Pear, Pickering Warden, Piper, Poire Angora, Royal d'Angle- terre, Lion, Uvedale's St. German, Uvedale's Warden, Winter Bell.			p	vl	ryb	co			Only valued for cooking.
Pound Moon's. H'182. Syn. of Moon.									l
Pound Pear. K'32, 151, '41, 128. MHSC'76, 32. Syn. of Castileac.									
Pound Par. P'117. Syn. of French Pound.									
Powell's Virgalieu. D'69, 804. Syn. of Virgalieu (Sum.)									

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Powls. <i>Powls Castle.</i> Mag o'H'43,128. Syn. of Powls. <i>Pradelle du Catalogue.</i> D'69,875. Syn. of Vicar. <i>Prairie.</i> L. Synus. <i>Prairie du Pond, Prairie du Pont.</i>	Ohio.	r	s	gyb	jm	va	p	me	Not described. Introduced by A. H. Ernst, of Cincinnati, Ohio.
<i>Prairie du Pond.</i> IIIH'98,311. D'69,835. EFABC'00. Syn. of <i>Prairie.</i> <i>Prairie du Pont.</i> IIIH'98,178. BBL. CanExR'96,136. Syn. of <i>Prairie.</i> <i>Prairie du Pont.</i> D'69,687. Syn. of <i>Cordele.</i> Fratt. Hort'46,210,47,431. Mag o'H'47,449,515,51,258. Cole157. B'51,307,83,373. WG3. AGH'54,283,56,330. E'54,381,59,405. D'57,537,69,835. F274. A'62,70. A'Hort'46,79. T'75,266,85,284,97,464. IaH'94,170. Bulb. Fratt Jr. A'62,151.	R. I.	obtp	m	gyru	jm	vs	g-vg	me	Said to have originated in Johnson, R. I. Origin on the same farm as Pratt. Named by Rhode Island Horticultural Society. Named by Mr. Manning for Commodore Edward Preble.
Preble. L. T'97,473. Syn. <i>Beurre Preble</i>	Me.	obl	m	gyru	bm	v	g	m	A cooking pear.
<i>Preble's Beurre.</i> K'23,180,41,153. Syn. of <i>Franc Real</i> (Sum.) <i>Prebl.</i> GenF'33,197. D'45,444,57,532,69,529. E'54,380,56,403. F281. Syn. of <i>Passé Colmar.</i> D'69,835 <i>Preble de Glady.</i> D'69,854. Syn. of <i>Skinties.</i> <i>Preble de Trelez.</i> EFABC'00. Syn. of <i>Trevoux.</i> <i>Precoce.</i> L. T'97,712. Syn. <i>Beurre Precoce</i> , <i>Bezi Precoce</i> , <i>Precoce Goubault.</i> <i>Precoce Goubault.</i> D'69,695. A'69,88. Syn. of <i>Precoce.</i> <i>Precoce.</i> K'32,157. GenF'37,277.	Belg.	obop	ml	gyru	cojbr			m	
<i>Premature.</i> K'32,157. GenF'37,277. <i>Premices d'Ecully.</i> Dapl32. EFABC'00. Syn. of <i>Ecully.</i> <i>Premices de Maria Lesueur.</i> EFABC'00. Syn. of <i>Maria Lesueur.</i> <i>Premices de Wagdauler.</i> D'69,836. Syn. of <i>Wagdauler.</i> <i>Premier.</i> R. Syn. <i>Leopold Premier.</i>	Fr.	obop	m	gyru	jm	va	g	me	Raised by M. Goubault, of Angers, France. Popular in the markets of Edinburgh, Scotland.
Prende du Pont. IIIH'77,228.	Belg.		s				g	ve	Originated by Dr. John Van Mons; fruited in 1848. Dr. Pennington, of Illinois, said it was poor, but valuable with him.
<i>Present de Malines.</i> Fr135. K'32,197. GenF'33,197. D'45,444,57,532,69,829. E'54,380,56,403. F281. Syn. of <i>Passé Colmar.</i> <i>Present Royal de Nantes.</i> E'54,354. D'69,667. Syn. of <i>Artols.</i> <i>Present Royal de Naples.</i> Mag o'H'38,305. E'54,354. F276. D'69,667. Syn. of <i>Artols.</i> <i>Present.</i> MassH'95,44,66,44,77,79. A'67,156,69,46,100,77,104,81,99. AJ of HII, 6,192. A'Hort'46,80. D'69,836. AHM290.	Mass.	robo	vl	gyru	coj	v	g	ml	Raised by Dr. Shurtleff, Brookline, Mass. Described in New England Farmer, 1862.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear		Orign.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Prince Imperial. F282. EFABC'00. CanExFR'04,480.....		For.....	p	m	yrn	b	s	vg	m	In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Prince Imperial de France.</i> D'69,837. Syn. of Gregoire.										
<i>Prince Napoleon.</i> WNYII'96,26. EFABC'00. Syn. of Napoleon (Prince).										
<i>Prince's Pear.</i> Th188. K'12,130,41,119. D'69,837. Syn. of Prince.										
<i>Prince of Wales.</i> AoffII'92,202. Syn. of Wales.										
<i>Prince's Perpetual.</i> F274. Syn. of Perpetual.										
<i>Prince Portugal.</i> R. Syn. Prince's Portugal.										Rejected by Congress of Fruit Growers, 1846.
<i>Prince's Portugal.</i> MagoffII'50,260. A'54,239. Syn. of Prince Portugal.										
<i>Prince Rudolph</i> (of Austria). EFABC'00. Syn. of Rudolph.										
<i>Prince's St. Germain.</i> WPr10. Pr146. K'32,181,41,151. M'38,93,44,80,47,82. Ind-F'40,183. D'45,447,57,546,99,837. Cole170. AGR'50,96,56,368. B'51,310. Wg73. E'54,335,39,348. H1182. F271. Hort'03,311. T'85,311,97,484. Syn. of German (Prince).										
<i>Prince's Sugar.</i> K'32,139,41,127. MagoffII'37,14. D'45,344,57,582,69,862. A'79,84. Syn. of Sugar Top.										
<i>Prince's Sugar Top.</i> D'45,344,57,582,69,862. E'54,399,59,424. F274. Syn. of Sugar Top.										
<i>Princess Gh.</i> FGAtoQ'92,109. WNYII'03,44. CanII'94,292. Syns. Beurre Romain, Princesslirne, Red Panna.		Rus.?			y	g	s	g		Brought from Europe in 1882.
<i>Princessine Gh.</i> Syn. of Princess										
<i>Princess Charlotte.</i> D'57,580,69,838. F282. T'75,554,85,569,97,712. Syn. of Charlotte (Princess).										
<i>Princess Orange.</i> K'41,151. F282. Syn. of Orange (Princess)										
<i>Princess Charlotte.</i> MagoffII'55,184. Syn. of Charlotte (Princess)										
<i>Princess Couquette.</i> D'40,405,57,580,69,839. E'54,398,59,423. Syn. of Orange (Princess)										
<i>Princess d'Orange.</i> Pr127. K'32,181,41,170. GenF'37,277. MagoffII'42,250. D'45,405,57,580,69,839. E'54,398,59,423. Syn. of Orange (Princess)										
<i>Princess d'Orme.</i> K'41,148. D'45,399,57,522,69,813. Hov11,37. E'54,377,59,398. F281. Syn. of Marie Louise.										
<i>Princess Helen d'Orleans.</i> F282. D'69,749. Syn. of Helene.										
<i>Princess Maria.</i> D'57,580,69,838. T'75,554,85,569,97,712. Syn. of Maria (Princess)										
<i>Princess Marie.</i> F282. AJoIIIVII,228. Syn. of Maria (Princess)										
<i>Princess Marianne.</i> MassH'51,189. MagoffII'52,39,53,107. D'57,531,69,827. F254,282. Syn. of Paradise.										
<i>Princess of Orange.</i> Pr127. GenF'37,277. M'38,93,44,68,47,71. D'45,405,57,580,69,839. E'54,239. E'54,398,59,423. H1182. F282. MagoffII'56,262. T'75,554,85,569,97,712. Syn. of Orange (Princess).										
<i>Princess of Wales.</i> AJoIIIII,37. Syn. of Huyshe Princess.			oblp	ml	yrn	jm	v		m	In the experimental orchards at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Princess (Rivers).</i> CanExFR'96,446.....										

	oblp	y		me		Published in the Domestic Encyclopedia, 1804. Probably Long Green of Downing.
<i>Princess Royal</i> , Magoffin II '41, 286. K'41, 165. E'54, 381, '59, 406. D'69, 776. FGAoF'92, '97. Syn. of Groom.						
<i>Prince's Table</i> . R. Syns. Long Green Summer Pear, Prince's Table Pear.						
<i>Prince's Table Pear</i> . DomEnc IV, 182. Syn. of Prince's Table.						
<i>Princiere de Kopertsch</i> . D'69, 764. Syn. of Kopertscher.						
<i>Priedle</i> . E'59, 411. Syn. of Thorpe.						
<i>Printemps</i> . L. Syn. Prince du Printemps.	Fl.	t s g b s g v l				Procured by Mr. Braddick from M. Stoffels in 1819.
<i>Prinz Napoleon</i> . AoMH'91, 296. Syn. of Napoleon (Prince).						Not described.
<i>Prodil</i> . F'83.	For					
<i>Professor Delaville</i> . EFABC'00. Syn. of Delaville.						
<i>Professor Dubreuil</i> . F'83. Syn. of Dubreuil.						
<i>Professor Hrenau</i> . D'69, 839. Syn. of Hennan.						
<i>Professor Hortalez</i> . Dapl'32. Syn. of Hortales.						
<i>Provence</i> . P'85. Syns. Bequesne, Donville (of some collections).						
<i>Provençe (Orn)</i> . L. Syns. Ogonnet de Provence; Ogonnet of Provence.	p t s yru co p me					
<i>Providence</i> . A'52, 27. E'54, 318, '59, 334. Syn. of Boussock.						
<i>Provost</i> . R. Syn. Boa Chretien Provost.						Published in Transactions of Iowa Horticultural Society, 1879, p. 325.
<i>Pucelle Condesirnac</i> . D'57, 532, '69, 829. F'81. Syn. of Passe Colmar.						
<i>Pucelle de Saintonge</i> . P'89. Cult'47, 340. Syn. of Chat Bruale.						
<i>Pucelle de Sainctonge</i> . K'32, 130. Syn. of Muscat Robert.						
<i>Pucelle de Xaintonge</i> . Prill. Syn. of Muscat Robert.						
<i>Pucelle de Xaintonge (erroneously)</i> . P'89. Syn. of Chat Bruale.						
<i>Pudsey</i> . A'75, 97.	N.S.					A native of Nova Scotia.
<i>Puebia</i> . Dapl'52. FGAoF'07, 73, 782.	Fr.	l gy cohj v m				Originated by Andre Leroy, of Angers, France.
<i>Pulsier</i> . F'P'33, 417. Hort'53, 460. E'54, 381. Syn. Pulsifer.	Ill.	s ycu cojm v g me				Originated by Dr. Pennington, Hennepin, Ill., in 1843.
<i>Pulsier, R</i> . F'74. PASF'71, 64. Syn. Pulsifer.		m vg m				
<i>Punctiletter</i> . R. Syn. Punctietter Sommerdorn.						Exhibited by Dr. Ives at meeting of New Haven (Conn.) Horticultural Society, 1838.
<i>Punctierter Sommerdorn</i> . MoH'57, 259. Syn. of Punctietter.						But little known in America.
<i>Punderson</i> . Magoffin III '38, 231, 496.						Said to keep for two years.
<i>Puvils</i> . L. Syns. Puvis St. Germain, Saint Germain Puvis.	Fr.	obl p l gyru dmj vs				Not described.
<i>Puvis St. Germain</i> . D'69, 839. Syn. of Puvis.						Originated on Long Island, N.Y.
<i>Pyreneas</i> . L. Syns. Tarquin, Tarquin des Pyrenees, Tarquin des Pyreneas.						
<i>Pyrus Brandista</i> . Pr'211. Syn. of Brande.						
<i>Pyrus Innoceatina</i> . Pr'213. Syn. of Innocense.						
<i>Pysans</i> . R. Syn. Pysans de Portugal.						
<i>Pysans de Portugal</i> . Magoffin '39, 291. Syn. of Pysans.						
<i>Quaker</i> . K'41, 130. Syn. Pope's Quaker.						
<i>Querante Onces</i> . Prill. Syn. of Catillac.						
<i>Queen</i> . Prill. EFABC'00. Syn. of Muscat Robert.	N.Y.	obl p m yru jm e-p m				
<i>Queen's Amber</i> . D'69, 818. Syn. of Muscat Robert.						
<i>Queen Caroline</i> . Magoffin '38, 436. MassII '44, 59. D'45, 408. A'54, 239. E'54, 386, '59.						
<i>Ques</i> . Syn. of Carolina.						
<i>Queens of August</i> . F'74. A'58, 55. D'69, 784. Syn. of Hoenschack.						

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Queen of Netherlands</i> . F282. Syn. of Low Countries. <i>Queen of Pears</i> . M'47,93. E'54,368, 59,423. L'18. Syn. of Queen Pear. <i>Queen of the Low Countries</i> . K'41,151. MagoffH'42,59. D'45,406, 57,580, 69,539. Coblet67. B'51,318. A'54,230. E'54,382, 59,406. H183. F282. T'75,266, 85,284, 97,484. Syn. of Low Countries. <i>Queen of Winter</i> . K'41,130. Syn. of Winter Queen. <i>Queen Pear</i> . L. Syn. Queen of Pears; Reine des Poires. <i>Queen's Pear</i> . Pril. K'32,130. GenF'37,277. D'45,341, 57,578, 69,818. E'54,397, 59,423. F281. Syn. of Muscat Robert. <i>Queen Victoria</i> . L. Syn. Reine Victoria.	Fr.	obop	ml	ycru	cobc		p		
<i>Quenast</i> . L. T'97,712. Syn. Beurre de Quenast.	Belg.?	obop	m	gy	dmj	s		l	Supposed to have been raised by Dr. John Van Mons. Description from Annals of Pomology. Published by Kenrick, 1841, p. 168. Not described.
<i>Quentin</i> . L. Syn. Beurre St. Quentin <i>Quasol d'Hiver</i> . M'46,011, 57,229. <i>Quincy d'Ete</i> . T'97,712. Syn. of Caisoy d'Ete. <i>Quetier</i> . R. Syn. Beurre Quetier.	Fr.	robip	m	gyru	mj	sp		m	In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C. received it from Dr. Downing in Mons. Dr. John Van Mons. Rejected by the Congress of Fruit Growers, 1849.
<i>Quilletette</i> . MagoffH'43,388. MassH'44,61. D'45,407, 52,538, 69,840. E'54,398. H183. F282. <i>Quilletette (of Manning)</i> . A'54,239	Belg.	rob	sm	gru	bm	sp	gp	m	
<i>Quimper</i> . L. Buls. Syns. Supreme de Quimper, Supreme Quimper. <i>Quince</i> . MassH'66,46.	Belg. Mass.	rp	m ml	yrru	jm j	sp s	g-vg e	me	Fruited in 1862. Raised by Dr. S. A. Shurtleff.
<i>Quince</i> . MagoffH'39,37. MassH'45,90. Syn. of Bicknell. Quinn. Hort'97,42, 117, 72,118. A'HortA'68,80. D'69,840. GarM'72,58. PaFS'72,47. N'JH'76,5, 77,22. Syns. Beurre Knight, Knight's Seedling, Quinn Knight. Quinnebaug. A'69,48. Quinn Knight. Hort'97,42. Syn. of Quinn. Quinnapiac. MagoffH'52,492. Hort'52,475.	Eur. Conn.	ap obip	ms l	yru	j		g p	l me	Imported to New Jersey by Prof. Mapes.
<i>Quinnapiac</i> . D'57,547, 69,850. T'75,554, 85,569, 97,712. Syn. of Ghislain. Quisse Madame. K'32,130, 41,118. Quittrellette. E'59,423. Rachinquin. L. Syn. De Rachinquin. Radish. DomEnclV'186. Th189.	For. Fr.?	obip r	ms r	yrb gru gru	j mb s	sp s	e ml e	e	Possibly same as Windoor. Was produced by M. Nolsette. Published in the Domestic Encyclopedia, 1804.
<i>Railroad Fuse</i> . Hort'63,58. D'69,831. Syn. of Penn. Bailay. E'54,382, 59,406. H183. OH'66,58. D'69,840. FGAofO'74,12. T'75,554, 85, 569, 67,712. Rameau. MassH'45,89. A'54,239. F278. Syn. of Veterans. Rameaux. MagoffH'51,472.		rp	sm	yrru	bfg		g	ml	Elliott received it from Ellwanger & Barry. This may be Veterans.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in *American publications from 1804 to 1907*—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Riche. L. Syn. Leopold Riche.....	Belg.	obtp	l	ycru	coj	s		ml	Raised by M. de Jonghe. Described by Hogg.
<i>Riche d'Apoie.</i> Pr205. K'32,183. Syn. of Riche Depouille.									
<i>Riche d'Italie.</i> Pr114. Syn. of Italie.									
<i>Riche Depouille.</i> Pr205. K'32,183. Syn. Riche d'Apoie.									Not described.
<i>Richellen.</i> L. T'97,213. Syn. Buere Richellen.		obtp	l	gy	bjm	sp	g-vg	l	Not described.
<i>Riche Ronde.</i> MagotH'43,131.									Not described.
<i>Richmond.</i> Pr147. D'60,770. Syn. of Harrison.									Not described.
<i>Rickerby.</i> Pr147. D'60,770. Syn. of Saint Germain.									
<i>Rickerby Imperial.</i> Syn. of Rickerby.									
<i>Ridale.</i> E'39,421. Syn. of Jargonelle (Fr.).									
<i>Ridelle.</i> MassH'45,87. Syn. of Audusson, Poire Ridelle, Poire		ovtp	m	yr	j		g-p	me	
<i>Ridelle's.</i> D'57,540, 69,842. F282. E'59,407. T'75,554, 85,570, 97,713. Syn. of Ridelle.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Riga.</i> R. Syn. Riga 108.									
<i>Riga 108.</i> EFABC'00. Syn. of Riga.									
<i>Rigoleau.</i> R. Syn. Poire Rigoleau.		r	s	yr		p		m	Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1854, p. 136.
<i>Riha.</i> R. Syn. Riha's Seedling.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Riha's Seedling.</i> EFABC'00. Syn. of Riha.									Not described.
<i>Rio de Lovalin.</i> Cult'47,340.									Not described.
<i>Rio de Rome.</i> Cult'47,340.									Probably a misprint for Riteon.
<i>Rio de Wurtemberg.</i> Hov15. E'54,323. F280. Syn. of Glout Moreau.									Exhibited by William R. Prince at meeting of Massachusetts Horticultural Society, 1844.
<i>Rio de Wurtemberg.</i> MagotH'38,391,436. E242. D'69,767. Syn. of Wurtemberg.									
<i>Rippon.</i> HAJ'86,34.	N. Y. ?								
<i>Rip van Winkle.</i> Cult'43,121,153. MagotH'44,396. MassH'44,64.									
<i>Ris de Loup.</i> D'99,772. Syn. of Glogell.									
<i>Riteon.</i> CarM'88,363. C'198,288,301,387,405,74, 99,165, 105,175. FGAofO'91,10.	Can.	p	m	gyru	jb		vg	m	Origin with John Riteon, of Oshawa, Ontario. Reading, Pa., in 1881, planted at
<i>Ritter.</i> (O)HS'91,47. B51. FESofO'92,78, 94,47.									Test for seed.
<i>Ritter.</i> MagotH'67,106. Hort'57,110. CGenIX,190.									Raised by Thomas Rivers, of Eng-
<i>Rivers.</i> L. Syna. Rivers' Winter Beurre, Winter Beurre (Rivers).....	Eng	rp	m	gru	gmb	vesa	g	vl	land
<i>Rivers Beeson.</i> AofH'92,277.									Not described.
<i>Rivers Princess.</i> EFABC'00.									In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Rivers Summer.</i> R. Syn. Rivers' Summer Beurre d'Arenberg.....	Eur.							e	Probably of little or no value.
<i>Rivers Summer Beurre d'Arenberg.</i> AJofH'111,208. Syn. of Rivers Summer.									

	Fr.	oblp	i	gybru	mjd	sp	ml	Originated near Angers in 1860 or 1861.
Ritters' Winter Beurre. A'58,185. Agr'58,394. D'69,843. Syn. of Rivers. Robert. R. Syn. Beurre Robert.								
Robert's Keeping. Pr77. D'45,429,'57,564,'69,751. E'54,389,'59,417. F277. Syn of Easter Bergamot.								
Robert's Muskateller. D'69,818. Syn. of Muscat Robert.								
Robinson. Magoffin'44,286. D'45,422,'69,878. E'54,345,'59,356. Agr'64,143. Syn. of Washington.								
Robin. K'41,119. T'97,477. Syns. Roaine Robin, Doyenne Robin (of Langlier), Royale d'Ete, Royal Summer.	Fr....	rob	m	gyru cojmg	vp	g	me	Raised by M. Robin, Angers, France. May be same as Robin.
Robine. Pr53. K'32,131. Syns. Averat Pear Royal Muscat pear of August, Avorat, Avorat Robine Muscat d'Aoust August Muscat, Poire d'Averat Averat Pear Poire Royale Royal Pear, Robine Averat Poire Royale Muscat d'Aout, Royale d'Ete, Royal Summer.		t		gy	cod			
Robinez. Pril. K'41,118. D'69,818. Syn. of Muscat Robert.								
Robine. P282. Syn. of Royal Summer.								
Robine Averat Poire Royale Muscat d'Aout. Pr33. Syn. of Robine.								
Robinson. Magoffin'44,287. D'57,559,'69,878. Syn. of Washington.	For.							
Rochefort. L. Syn. Rousselet de Rochefort.								
Rodney. A'56,89,157. Agr'56,367.	Del.							
Roe. L. Syn. Roe's Bergamot.	N. Y.	ob	m	yr	com	sp	g-vg me	Published by Field, on p. 282; not described. Grown for stocks for double growth.
Roe's Bergamot. D'57,540,'69,843. F775. E'59,407. T'75,284,'85,302,'97,477. Syn. of Roe.								Raised by William Roe, of Newburgh, N. Y.
Rogers. A'67,157. Dapl33. Syns. Dean, Dean's Seedling.	Masa.	ovp	m	ygr	colm	vp	g-vg me	Introduced by A. J. Dean, of Boston, Mass.
Rogers. BBL. Syn. of Kincaid.								
Rogers Elizabeth. Hort'75,244. Syn. of Archangel.								
Rogers Seedling. MassH'75,119.								Not described. Exhibited at meeting of Indiana Horticultural Society, 1894, by Addison Hadley.
Rogers Winter. IndHl'94,145.								
Rohan. L. Syns. Camille de Rohan, Prince Camille de Rohan. Roi d'Ere. Pr21. K'32,128. F282. D'69,843. Syn. of Summer King. Roi d'Ete (erroneously). Pr24. Syn. of Archduke. Roi de Louvain. D'69,716. Syn. of Catillac. Roi de Rome. K'32,198. D'64,843. Syn. of Rome King. Roi de Rome (erroneously). GenF'33,197. D'45,401,'57,529,'69,819. E'54,378,'59,400. F349,281. Syn. of Napoleon. Roi de Warimbourey. GenF'33,197. D'45,437,'57,503. HorI'5. E'54,325,'59,339. F280. Agr'62,185. Syn. of Glout Moreau. Roi de Warimbourey. K'32,173. Magoffin'38,391,436. F242. D'69,767. Syn. of Wurtemberg. D'69,742. Syn. of Summer Doyenne. Roi de Warimbourey. Pr15. K'32,128. F274. D'69,775. Syn. of Blanquette. Roi Louis. Agra. D'69,688. Syn. of Doris. Roi Louis. Agra. D'69,688. Syn. of Doris. Roi Louis. Agra. D'69,688. Syn. of Doris.	Eur.	robo	m	gyru gm	v	g	l	
Rohrbach. Hort'68,76. D'69,843. MassH'77,79. A'81,99.	Fl. Belg.	f	s	gyru ms	mjd	a	g me	
Rolley. WNYH'69,159.		obop	ms	gyru m	va	p	me	Raised by M. Bivort. Exhibited by Ellwanger & Barry; not described.

	Eur.	oblp	ms	ygrb	jmb	sp	vg-b	me	
<i>Rostiezn.</i> Cult '54, 280. CGen XVII, 30. IIIH '99, 155. HMHS241. Syn. of Rostiezer.									
<i>Rostiezer.</i> M '38, 72, '44, 66, '47, 69. D '45, 410, '57, 442, '99, 845. B '51, 301, '83, 365. W '573.									
<i>Hovl'49.</i> Agr '50, 94. Colel54. E '54, 335, '59, 346. Cult '54, 286. Hort '54, 355, '55,									
64, '71, 61. H185. F255. T '75, 252, '85, 270, '97, 453. Syn. Rostiezer.									
<i>Rache Bergamotte.</i> MHSC '82, 57. FGAoF '83, 221. Syn. of Red Bergamot.									
<i>Rouan.</i> R. Syn. Bourre de Rouan.									
<i>Rouen.</i> L. Syn. Milan de Rouen.									
<i>Rouennaise.</i> L. Syn. Belle Rouennaise.									
<i>Rouge.</i> T '97, 713. Syn. of Brown.									
<i>Rougeaude.</i> PR88.									
<i>Rouge d'Anjou.</i> D '69, 937. FGAoF '73, 82. Syn. of Red Anjou.									
<i>Rouges des Vierges.</i> F282. D '69, 717. Syn. of Summer Certeau.									
<i>Roulet.</i> CanH '94, 292.									
<i>Round Bergamot.</i> CanH '83, 39. Syn. of Sapieganka.									
<i>Round Blanquet.</i> L. Syn. Gros Blanquet Rond, Grösse Blanquette Ronde,									
<i>Large Round Blanquet.</i>									
<i>Round Top.</i> Hort '50, 335. D '57, 554, '99, 872. E '59, 412. Syn. of Uwehlan.									
<i>Rousselench.</i> Cult '39, 66. K '41, 165. MagroH '50, 296. Syn. Rouseo Linch.									
<i>Rouse Linch.</i> MagroH '39, 295. Syn. of Rousselench.									
<i>Rousee Lench.</i> GenF '33, 197. D '69, 845. Syn. of Lench.									
<i>Rousselet.</i> R. Syn. Rousselet de Cour.									
<i>Rousselet.</i> C184. D '45, 343, '57, 581, '99, 846. E '54, 399, '99, 424. F282. Syn. of Rheims.									
<i>Rousselet.</i> PR21. E '54, 399, '99, 424. Syn. of Summer King.									
<i>Rousselet Aclens.</i> MagroH '60, 220. D '69, 845. Syn. of Aclens.									
<i>Rousselet Elvort.</i> D '69, 845.									
<i>Rousselet d'Anjou.</i> PR125. K '32, 143. Syn. of Calisoy.									
<i>Rousselet Decoler.</i> D '69, 845. Syn. of Decoster.									
<i>Rousselet de Cour.</i> F282. Syn. of Rousselet.									
<i>Rousselet d'Espen.</i> E '59, 408. Syn. of Espen.									
<i>Rousselet d'Grand Bragnon.</i> E '59, 408. Syn. of British Russet.									
<i>Rousselet d'Hyver.</i> PR148. K '41, 128. A '54, 239. Syn. of Winter Rousselet.									
<i>Rousselet d'Hyver.</i> PR148. Syn. of Sol d'Hyver.									
<i>Rousselet de Janier.</i> D '69, 750. Syn. of Janier.									
<i>Rousselet de Janier.</i> D '69, 845. Syn. of Janier.									
<i>Rousselet de Jonghe.</i> D '69, 846. Syn. of Jonghe Rousselet.									
<i>Rousselet de Mreiter.</i> MagroH '42, 58, '43, 131, '48, 206. D '45, 409, '57, 581, '99, 814. B '51,									
316. E '54, 398, '99, 424. Agr '56, 331. H185. F282. T '75, 554, '85, 570, '97, 713. Syn. of									
Marie Parent.									
<i>Rousselet de Rheims.</i> C186. PR20. K '32, 131, '41, 119. GenF '33, 197, '37, 277. M '38, 69,									
'44, 73, '47, 75. Cult '39, 66. D '45, 343, '57, 581, '99, 846. Colel60. E '54, 399, '99, 424. H									
184. F282. T '75, 554, '85, 570, '97, 713. L18. Syn. of Rheims.									
<i>Rousselet de Rochefort.</i> F282. Syn. of Rochefort.									
<i>Rousselet de Stuttgart.</i> Agr '58, 422. IIIH '63, 23. FGAoF '72, 14. Syn. of Stuttgart.									
<i>Rousselet Double.</i> Hort '53, 64. D '57, 540, '99, 846. F282. Syn. of Espen.									
<i>Rousselet Double Espen.</i> Hort '53, 64. E '54, 383. H185. Syn. of Espen.									
<i>Rousselet Enfant Prodigue.</i> D '57, 540, '99, 846. F282. Syn. of Enfant Prodigue.									
<i>Rousselet Enfant Prodigue.</i> D '57, 540, '99, 846. F282. T '75, 554, '85, 570, '97, 713. Syn. of Espen.									
<i>Rousselet Hailf.</i> C178. PR20. K '32, 127, '41, 119. M '38, 65, '44, 50, '47, 57. D '45, 343, '57,									
581, '99, 846. E '54, 394, '99, 421. Agr '56, 334. H184. F282. A '62, 68. T '75, 554, '85, 570,									
'97, 713. L18. Syn. of Early Rousselet.									

Fr.	obop	l	yg	gim	s	l
Saint George. F282. Syn. of Georgia .						
Saint Germain. Don. F214. 180. Gen. Cal. 187. Th. 191. P. 905. K 32, 148, 41, 123.						
Saint Germain blanc. D'69, 850. F282. D'69, 850. Syn. Arteloir, Frank- lin, Hain blanc, Saint Germain brun, Saint Germain d'Hiver, St. Germain Doré, St. Germain Gris, St. Germain Jaune, St. Germain Prince's, Saint Germain Vert, Unknown La Fare, Winter St. Germain.						
St. Germain. C197. SW. P. 905. Cole 70. D'45, 446, 57, 548. B'51, 310. H190. T'85, 308. IIIH'90, 173. Syn. of Saint Germain.						
Saint Germain blanc. P. 905. D'69, 850. Syn. of Saint Germain.						
St. Germain Blanc. D'45, 441, 57, 577, 69, 804. E'54, 397, 59, 422. F281. Syn. of Louise Bonne.						
Saint Germain Brondes. P. 211. F278, 282. Syn. of Brondes.						
Saint Germain Brans. MagoH'43, 131.						
Saint Germain brun. D'69, 850. Syn. of Saint Germain.						
Saint Germain d'Ete. P. 30. D'45, 347, 57, 582, 69, 864. E'54, 396, 59, 424. F282. Syn. of St. Germain (Sum.)						
St. Germain de Graines. D'69, 668. Syn. of Julie.						
Saint Germain de Martin. D'45, 347, 57, 582, 69, 864. E'54, 399, 59, 424. F282. Syn. of St. Germain (Sum.)						
Saint Germain de Peplins. D'69, 850. Syn. of Peplins.						
Saint Germain d'Hiver. D'69, 850. EFA BC'90. Syn. of Saint Germain.						
St. Germain Doré. D'69, 850. Syn. of Saint Germain.						
St. Germain du Tillay. D'69, 668. Syn. of Julie.						
St. Germain Duilleul. D'69, 668. Syn. of Julie.						
St. Germain du Tillou. D'69, 668. Syn. of Julie.						
St. Germain Fondante. F277. D'69, 672. Syn. of Antoine.						
Saint Germain Gris. F282. D'57, 548, 69, 850. F282. Syn. of Saint Germain.						
St. Germain Gris. Gen. F'33, 197. D'57, 548, 69, 850. F282. Syn. of Saint Germain.						
St. Germain Jaune. Gen. F'33, 197. D'57, 548, 69, 850. F282. Syn. of Saint Germain.						
St. Germain Nouveau. D'69, 854. Syn. of New St. Germain.						
St. Germain Penache. D'69, 850. Syn. of Striped Germain.						
St. Germain Prince's. L18. Syn. of Saint Germain.						
Saint Germain Puisse. AHort'46, 81. A'69H11, 45. D'69, 850. Syn. of Puisse.						
Saint Germain Striped. MagoH'43, 131. Syn. of Striped Germain.						
St. Germain (Sum.). L. Syn. Hoe-Langer Hoe-Liever, Jargonelle des Pro- vencaux, Jargonelle of Provence, Joli-Mont (of some), Saint Germain d'Ete, Saint Germain de Martin, Short's Saint Germain, Summer St. Germain, St. Germain Tillon. MassH'45, 99.						
Saint Germain Van Mons. F282. Dapl33. Syn. of Germain (Van Mons)						
Saint Germain Variegated. F282.						
Saint Germain Vauquelin. F283. MagoH'60, 221. D'69, 874. A'69H'91, 206. Syn. of Vauquelin.						
Saint Germain Vert. D'69, 850. Syn. of Saint Germain.						
St. Ghislain. M'28, 71, 44, 55, 47, 61. Cult'39, 66. D'45, 410, 57, 547. B'51, 308, 83, 383. W'673. Cole 57. M'VH'11, 45. A'F'53, 289. E'54, 396, 59, 409. H190. A'62, 70. T'75. 267, 85, 285, 97, 464. M'VH'S'83, 130. Syn. of Ghislain.						
Saint Ghislain. K'72, 183, 41, 151. Gen. F'33, 197. MagoH'45, 178. Hov'11, 45. H190. D'69, 850. Syn. of Ghislain.						
Saint Ghislain. F282. Syn. of Ghislain.						

Not described.

Not described.

Probably of no value.

Shown at meeting of Massachu-
setta Horticultural Society by
Robert Manning.

Not described.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
St. Hays. R. Syn. Vanes de St. Haye									
St. Herblain d'Hiver. Massif '46, 151. Magoffi '54, 456. D'57, 664, '96, 751. F277. Syn. of Easter Bergamot.									Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1856, p. 146.
St. Herbiana d'Hiver. E'39, 410									Probably same as Easter Bergamot.
Saint Hubert Rousselet. Magoffi '43, 131. Syn. of Hubert.									
Saint Isidore. F282. Syn. of Isidore.									
St. Jean. E'54, 366, '99, 381. Syn. of Harvest.									
St. Jean. D'45, 330, '57, 450, '68, 658. F276. Syn. of Joannet.									
St. Jean Baptiste. Magoffi '33, 21. E'54, 384, '56, 410. D'57, 546, '69, 727. Syn. of Flandre.									
St. Jean Baptiste d'Hiver. F282. D'69, 727. Syn. of Flandre.									
St. Jean Jacques Gros. GenF'33, 197. D'43, 341, '57, 578, '69, 818. E'54, 307, '59, 423. F281. Syn. of Muscat Robert.									
St. John. Syn. of Joachim.									
St. John. CalisBoll'92, 40. Syn. of Joannet.									
St. John's Pear. F'49. E'54, 394, '59, 383. Syn. of Harvest.									
St. John's Pear. F'49. E'41, 117. D'45, 330, '57, 450, '69, 658. Syn. of Joannet.									
Saint Joseph. F282. Syn. of Joseph.									
Saint Lambert. F'132. K'32, 128. GenF'37, 277. D'45, 337, '57, 514, '69, 758. E'54, 373, '59, 383. F280. T'75, 555, '85, 571, '97, 714. Syn. of Jargonelle (Fr.)									
Saint Laurent. F'83. D'69, 707. Syn. of Jargonelle (Fr.)									
St. Lezin. F'66. Magoffi '38, 306. Syn. of Lezin.									
Saint Lezin. F'66. D'69, 850. Syn. of Lezin.									
Saint Louis. F282. Hort'72, 150									
St. Luke. EFABC'00. Syn. of Luke.									
Saint Marc. D'69, 668. Syn. of Thours.									
St. Marc. W'181, 47. E'54, 342, '59, 352. D'57, 445, '69, 871. Syn. of Urbaniste.									
Saint Marcel. F'79. K'32, 142, 41, 124. Syn. of Angelique.									
St. Mark. F282. Syn. of Urbaniste.									
St. Martial. F'79. K'41, 124. D'69, 660. Syn. of Angelique.									
Saint Martial. F'79. Syn. of Angelique.									
St. Meure. F283. Syn. of Urbaniste.									
Saint Menin. Massif '53, 22. Magoffi '54, 37. D'57, 546, '69, 850. F282. E'59, 410. AJ of HVIII'122. T'75, 555, '85, 571, '97, 714. Syn. of Menin.									
St. Meslin. E'54, 383, '59, 410.									
St. Michael. TL192. F'43. E'50, 336. T'75, 555, '85, 571, '97, 714. Syn. of White Doyenne.									
St. Michael Archangel. K'41, 152. E'54, 384, '59, 410. D'57, 546, '69, 851. T'75, 267, '85, 285, '97, 464. Syn. of Archangel.									
St. Michael Archangel. Magoffi '51, 499. B'51, 318, '83, 383. Hort'71. Hort'54, 310, '68, 202, '75, 244. AGR'54, 245. D'57, 546, '69, 851. Syn. of Archangel.									

Mr. Lyon believed this to be Menin.

[illegible]

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Salzburger. Gb. MHSC'82,60. FGAO'83,223. Syn. of Salzburger.	Rus.								
Salzburger. Gb. Syn. of Salzburger.									
Sam Brown. A'69,101. A'69H'71,79. Aliorta'70,77. Agr'75,379. Dapi'34. T'75, 334, 38,570, 97,713. Syn. Maryland Seedling.	Md	rob	ms	yrub	cojm	v	vg	me	Imported from Russia in 1882; tree vigorous and hardy.
Samenlose. IaH'85,302. IndH'85,27.	Rus.								Originated at Walnut Hills, Anne Arundel County, Md., with Sam Brown, Jr. Mentioned by Professor Budd.
Sancroix. CanH'89,291. Syn. of Bessemerianka.									
Sandoy pear. L. OH'85,177. Syn. Buire Samoyeau.			m	yr	bj			m	
Sandoy pear. L. OH'85,177. Syn. of Craig.									
Sandoy pear. CanH'94,291.	Rus?		m				g		Uncertain as to identity. Not described.
Sandford. MasoH'88,27.									
Sandwich Island Pear. IaH'75,213, 83,101, 84,314. OH'81,21. IndH'79,48. GarM'84,19.									
Sandwich Island Pear. IndH'78,64. CanH'79,95. B'229. MichB31. GalH'92,49.									
Sanguine. Pr27. Syn. of Sanguine.									
Sanguine. Pr27. Syn. of Sanguine.									
Sanguine d'Italie. WPr12. F282. D'69,851. Syn. of Sanguine.									
Sanguine. Pr26. K'32,153, 41,119. F282. D'69,851. Syn. Blood, Bloody, Grenade, Poire d'Italie, Red Flowering, Sanguine, Sanguine d'Italie, Sanguine de France.	r	sm	sm	yb	jm		g	me	An interesting curiosity; fruit of no value.
Sanguinole (Belg.). L. Syn. Sanguinole de Belgique.		ovp	m	gru				me	A curiosity with red flesh; not valuable.
Sanguinole de Belgique. D'69,852. Syn. of Sanguinole (Belg.).									
Sanguinole de France. F282. Syn. of Sanguinole.									
Sannier. R. Syn. Sannier's Bergamot.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Sannier's Bergamot. EFABC'00. Syn. of Sannier.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Sannier's Bergamot. EFABC'00.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Sans Pair. D'69,762. Syn. of Sanspareil.									Only valued for cooking.
Sanspareil. L. T'97,713. Syn. Bergamotte Sanspareil, Best Incomparable, Bery Sanspareil, Non-Pareil, Bergamot, Nonpareille, Sans Pair, Sans Pareille.	Fr.	p	l	ygb	gbjm	v	p	ml	
Sanspareille. D'69,762. Syn. of Sanspareil.									
Sanspareille. C'180. D'45,345, 57,542, 69,896. B'51,301. E'54,383, 59,350. F282. T'85,270. Syn. of Skinless.									
Sans Peptina. Cult 47,340. MagoH'90,286. A'54,239. D'69,778. Syn. of Hampden.									
Santa Ana. WnI,332, II,341. A'95,68. IIIH'96,204. BBL. EFABC'00.	Cal.	obp	l	yrub	t	vp	g	l	Originated in Santa Ana, Cal.
Santa Rosa. L. Syn. Santa Rosa Seedling.	Cal.	p	l		b	v		m	
Santa Rosa Seedling. WnI,332, II,341. A'95,68. Syn. of Santa Rosa.	Cal.								
Santaliet. L. Syn. Doyenne Santeleto, Doyenne Santeliet, Sentillet.	Fl.	obtp	ml	gyru	gd	p		m	From Flanders; described by Lindley.

	ovobl	ml	yc	m	p	me
Selgneur d'Ete. Pri94 K'32,157,41,133. GenF'37,277. EFABC'00. Syn. Lord of Summer.						
Selgneur d'Hiver. GenF'33,198. K'41,160. D'45,625,'57,428,'60,751. E'54,317,'59,331. F24. T'85,310. Syn. of Easter Beurre.						
Selgneur Tachete. K'41,170. MagotH'2,250. Syn. of Tachete.						
Selville. HHV'93,168. GenF'36,510,'57,115. MagotH'57,114. D'57,543,'60,854. F275. E'59,400. Vt.	obtp	l	yeru	cogjm	sp	g-vg m
Select. A'90,98. CogenIX'97,151. T'75,297. S'85,397,464.						
Semianichnaya. Gb. Syn. of Strawberry.						
Sensateur Belle. EFABC'00.						
Sensateur Mosselman. D'60,854. Syn. of Mosselman.						
Sensateur Vaize. EFABC'00. Syn. of Valaise.						
Seneca. WmP'92. C(O)HS'92,130. AofH'92,185. JSC'95. CBCO'95. IIIHV'96,178. '98,180. AHM293. N. J. I.						
Sentillet. E'54,363,'59,378. Syn. of Santellet.						
September Orange. K'32,140,'41,127. Syn. of Orange Sept.						
Sept-en-quatre. Pri10. K'32,130. D'45,340,'57,577. F281. Syn. of Little Muscat.						
Seraphine Ovin. D'60,854. Syn. of Ovin.						
Seraphine Ovin. MagotH'57,303. MassH'67,303. Syn. of Ovin.						
Serrurier. MagotH'51,500,'55,186. E'54,383. D'57,543,'60,854. F282. Horf'61,318. CGenXXV'94. T'75,279,'85,297,'97,474. Syn. Boile Alliance; Fondante de Millat.	robt	m	yru	cogjm	va	g-vg m
Fondante de Millot; Fondante Serrurier de Millat; Neufmaisons; Neuve Maison.						
Nouveau Maison. Nouveau Mauxion; Polre Serrurier; Serrurier d'Automne.						
Serrurier d'Automne. K'32,184,'41,152. MassH'48,99. E'54,383,'59,383. D'57,543,'60,854. F281,282. Syn. of Serrurier.	ov	ml	gbu	mj	sp	m
Shankpear. Cult'7,340. HorfII'33. D'60,852. Syn. of Seckel.	rp	m	yru	j		m
Sha Lea. IndrH'78,63,'79,48. InH'79,302. GarM'84,19. B1229,244. Syns. Chinese Sand Pear; Sand Pear; Sha-H.						
Sho-H. InH'81,376. Syn. of Sha Lea.						
Shawmontel. D'60,718. Syn. of Chaumontel.						
Shawl. MassH'48,101. Syn. of Durfee.						
Shaw-Montel. D'60,718. Syn. of Chaumontel.						
Shawmut. MagotH'56,206. A'67,158. D'60,855. MassH'62,38. Syn. Dana's No. 17.	obtp	l	yru	cogjm	vp	m
Sheldon. MagotH'50,400,'51,252,'53,542. HorfII'52. E'54,383,'59,347. D'57,444,'60,855. H186. F284,800. F152. Q60. B'83,373. B1228. T'75,284,'85,302. '97,477. WnI'327,IL337. Syns. Bland, Black Virgalien, Huron, Penfield, Wayne, Whipple, Wiener.	robt	ml	gyeru	jm	svp	vg m
Shenanadoah. MassH'66,43.						
Shenck's August. MagotH'53,402. Syn. of Hosenschenck.						
Shenck's. MagotH'52,402,'408,'54,23. D'45,413,'57,208,'60,784. AJOHVIII'223. T'75,555,'85,570. Syn. of Hosenschenck.						
Shepard. Cult'54,345. CGenIV'230. T'75,279,'85,297,'97,474. Syn. of Sheppard.						
Shepard's Seedling. T'85,297. Syn. of Sheppard.						
Shepard's Seedling. MagotH'55,184. A'56,38. Horf'57,214. Syn. of Sheppard.						
MassH'56,19. F275. MagotH'58,600. Syn. of Sheppard.						
Shephard. D'57,583,'60,855. E'59,408. AHorTA'70,'77. Syns. Dorchester Seedling, Shephard.	ovp	l	ybru	cogjm	vp	g-vg m
Correct spelling of the name uncertain.						

Correct spelling of the name uncertain.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Snow Pear</i> . Gen F'33, 186. D'45, 378, '57, 436. Hov II, 85. E'54, 322, '59, 336. F224. Agr-'62, 183. Syn. of White Doyenne.									In the trial orchards of Illinois experiment stations.
<i>Snyder</i> . III F'63, 272.									
<i>Solden Court</i> . F278. Syn. of Broom Park.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Sobieski</i> . R. Syn. King Sobieski.									Not described.
Socquet, F282.	For.	obl	l	yr	mjb	ap			Raised by M. Gregoire.
Socour, L. Syns. La Soeur Gregoire, Soeur Gregoire.	Fr.	obl							
Socour Gregoire. D'60, 78. E'45, 100. Syn. of Soeur.									
Soldat. L. Syns. Alphonse Karr, Auguste au Kraus, Beurre de Rhine, Blumenbuech, Brabant, Duchesse de Brabant, Esperin Soldat, Soldat d'Esperin, Soldat Esperin, Soldat Labreur, Soldat Labreur d'Esperin, Soldat Labreur de France, Soldat Labreur.	Belg.	obop	lm	yr	gm	avp	g-vg	m	A seedling of Maj. Esperin. Fruited in 1820.
Soldat, F277. Syn. of Esperin.									
Soldat d'Esperin. M'60, 111, 48, 210. E'54, 337. Syn. of Soldat.									
Soldat Esperin. H'89, D'46, 856. Syn. of Soldat.									
Soldat Labreur. Hort'31, 116. Magoff II'54, 139. Agr'54, 245. F257. T'75, 267, '85, 285, '97, 463. Syn. of Soldat.									
Soldat Labreur d'Esperin. E'54, 337, '59, 349. H'89. Syn. of Soldat.									
Soldat Labreur (of some). Hov I, 1. E'54, 314, '59, 226. Agr'65, 188. Syn. of Aremberg.									
Soldat Labreur (of the French). H'89. Syn. of Soldat.									
Soldat Labreur. Cult'47, 340. Magoff II'46, 210. Hort'52, 14. Agr'56, 368. D'57, 543, '69, 856. T'85, 285. Syn. of Soldat.									
Soteli. L. Syns. Grand Soleil, Grand Soleil.	Belg.	rp.	m	yeru	cojm	sv	vg	m	Introduced by Maj. Esperin, of Malines.
Soleurs. D'69, 706. Syn. of Soulers.									
Solitaire. Pr62. K'41, 122. D'57, 577, '69, 661. Syn. of Angobert.									
Solitary Manuelle. Pr62. Syn. of Angobert.									
Sommer A pothekebrinc. D'45, 346, '57, 583, '69, 863. F282. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Sum.).									
Sommer Gule Christebine Grose. Pr59. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Sum.).									
Sommer Gule Christebine. D'45, 346, '57, 583, '69, 863. F282. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Sum.).									
Sophia. L. T'97, 714. Syns. Beurre Sophia, Bonne Sapler, Bonne Sophia.		ap	m	gyru	djm	sp	vg	m	
Sophia Beckmans. D'69, 814. Syn. of Marie Parent.									
Sorbus. F282. Syns. Bergamotte de Soulers, De Sorlus.	Belg.	oblp	ml	gyru	co		g	m	Raised by Dr. John Van Mons. Not described.
Sotschuala. Ia II'80, 61.	Rus.								
Son de la Mare au Trou. HAJ'88, 74. Syn. of Trou.									
Soulange. L. T'97, 464. Syns. Beurre Soulangue, Doyenne Soulangue.		ap	ml	yr	mj	sp		m	Mentioned by Col. M. P. Wilder in report.

Soulard. R. Syn. Soulard's Bergamot	Mo.	ov	m	gyr	jm	sv	g	vi	Said to have been originated at St. Louis, Mo., by J. C. Soulard.
<i>Soulard's Bergamot</i> . Hort'54,476. Syn. of Soulard									Described in 1875.
<i>Soulers</i> . L. Syns. Bergamotte de Soulers, Bergamotte de Soulers, Beurre de Piques, Beurre de Soulers, Bonne de Soulers, Des Soulers, Soulers.									Originated by M. Morel, Lyon-Vaise, France.
<i>Souvenir</i> . Bull.8. Syns. Poire du Congrès Pomologique, Souvenir de Congrès, Souvenir du Congrès, Souvenir (Cong.), Souvenir du Congrès.	Fr.	oblp	l-vl	gyru	gbj	vp		me	Raised by M. Gregoire.
<i>Souvenir</i> (Belg. Queen). L. Syn. Souvenir de la Reine des Belges.	Belg.	ap	ml	gyru	dmj	sp		m	
<i>Souvenir du Congrès</i> . MassH'72,92. Syn. of Souvenir									
<i>Souvenir d'Espérance</i> . AJOH'11,14. AHort'1,08,81, 99,75. AgR'75,380. T'75,267, '85, 285, '97, 465. D'69,887. B'83,383. Syn. of Souvenir (Esp.)									Exhibited by Ellwanger & Barry at meeting of Western New York Horticultural Society, 1905.
<i>Souvenir de la Reine des Belges</i> . D'69,887. Syn. of Souvenir (Belg. Queen)									Not described.
<i>Souvenir de Lens</i> . WNYH'06,140									
<i>Souvenir de Leroux Durand</i> . EFAB'00. Syn. of Leroux									
<i>Souvenir de Madame Tryve</i> . MassH'62,22. D'69,899. Syn. of Tryve									
<i>Souvenir de Rouen</i> . FGAO'83,72									
<i>Souvenir de Simon Bouvier</i> . F'282. D'69,886. Syn. of Simon Bouvier									
<i>Souvenir du Congrès</i> . Garm'72,250. AgR'75,381. MichH'75,89. Wn'1,335,343. Syn. of Souvenir									
<i>Souvenir du Congrès</i> . Hort'69,234, 72,322, 73,313. D'69,886. IaH'73,89. MichH'74, 246. T'75,555, '85,570, '97,714. B'83,365. Wn'1,325,11,335,111,288. HB'03,135. Syn. of Souvenir									
<i>Souvenir du Venerable de la Saliz</i> . EFAB'00. Syn. of Venerable									
<i>Souvenir</i> (Esp.). L. Syn. Souvenir d'Espérance	Belg.	oblp	l	gyru	j	vp	vg	m	Raised by Maj. Esperen.
<i>Souvenir Esperen</i> . F'276. Syn. of Noel									
<i>Souvenir Fèvre</i> . D'69,888. Syn. of Fèvre									
<i>Souvenir Fèvre</i> . Dup'134. Syn. of Fèvre (Souv.)									
<i>Souvenir Saumir</i> . NJH'80,214									
<i>Souvenir Trayve</i> . FGAO'83,72									
<i>Souvenir d'Elze</i> . E'69,579. Syn. of Berr									
<i>Souvenir d'Elze</i> . Genf'33,197. D'45,444, 69,888. A'94,239. E'64,380, '69,409. Syn. of Passe Colmar									
<i>Souvenir d'Elze</i> . MassH'51,189. E'54,384. D'57,545, '69,888. F'282. H'92. T'75,555, '85,570, '97,714. Syn. of Sovereign (Sum.)									
<i>Souvenir d'Elze</i> . K'41,168. D'57,552, '69,889. F'284. T'75,555, '85,570, '97,714. Syn. of Passe Colmar									
<i>Souvenir de Printemps</i> . D'57,544, '69,888. F'282. E'59,409. T'75,555, '85,570, '97,714. Syn. of (Spring)									
<i>Souvenir Colmar</i> . P'213. Syn. of Passe Colmar									
<i>Sovereign</i> (Spring). L. Syn. Poire de Printemps, Souveraine de Printemps									
<i>Sovereign</i> (Sum). L. Syns. Souveraine d'Ete, Souveraine d'Ete	Fr.	robp	m	gyru	jm	s	g-vg	m	
<i>Sovereign d'Elze</i> . Hort'51,115. Syn. of Sovereign (Sum.)		robp	ms	gyru	jm	svp	g	me	
<i>Sorrelae</i> . MagofH'60,26	Belg.	rp	l	yb	jdm	sp	vg	m	Rejected by Congress of Fruit Growers, 1890.
<i>Spae</i> . L. Syn. Beurre Spae									

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.		Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Spanish. L. Syns. Amande Sucde, Autumn Bon Chretien, Blanche, Bon Chretien d'Automne, Bon Chretien d'Espagne, Bon Chretien dore d'Espagne, Bon Chretien Jaune d'Automne, Bon Chretien Spanish, Bon Chretien Spina, Compagne d'Ostende, De Janvry, Good Christian of Spain, Gracoli de la Toussaint, Gratiod d'Automne, Grosse Grand Bretagne, Grosse Grand Bretagne Doree, Janvry, Mansuetie President d'Espagne, Safran d'Automne, Safran Rosat d'Automne, Spanish Bon Chretien, Spanish Warden, Spina, Vandyck, Van Dyck Vermillion d'Espagne d'Hiver.		Spanish Bon Chretien. GarCalist. W 711. Pr 93. W.S. K'22,140,41,122. Gen-F'33,197. MagofH'37,50. MassH'44,64. D'45,430,57,567,60,858. APC'50,11. E'54,381,69,418. H189. T'75,541,85,556,97,605. Syn. of Spanish.	p	l	yr	cob		g	l	A very old variety; prized only for cooking.
Spanish Warden. D'60,858. Syn. of Spanish.		Spar. EFABC'00.								
Sparbirne. AofH'92,272.										
Sparbirne. D'69,758. Syn. of Jargonelle (Eng.)										In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Spate Hardesmont. AofH'91,280.										Not described.
Speckled Harris. D'69,779. Syn. of Harris.		Mass.								Not described.
Speedwell. MassH'60,43.										Originated at Brookline, Mass. Fruited in 1893.
Spel-bairgh. Wg'74. Syn. of Spoelberch.		Belg.	tp	m	gyru	jm	v	g-vg	m	Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.
Spence. L. T'91,714. Syn. Beurre Spence										
Spice. MagofH'53,566. Agr'54,273. A'54,84. Syn. of Bleeker										
Spice. MagofH'49,43. Cult'39,66. Syn. of Rheims										
Spice Butter. MagofH'53,566. Agr'54,273. A'54,85. D'57,567,60,703. E'59,368.										
Syn. of Bleeker.										
Spice Catharine. K'32,137. Syn. of Summer Thorn.										
Spice or Must Pear. C186. P'20. D'45,343,57,581,60,846. E'54,309,59,424. H189.										
T'82. T'75,555,85,571,97,714. L18. Syn. of Rheims.										
Spicy Muscadet. DomEnclV,187.			r	s	yb			g	e	On trial at Illinois experiment stations.
Spelman. IH'96,187.										
Spina. D'45,450,60,858. E'54,301,59,418. Syn. of Spanish.										
Spina di Carpi. D'60,848. Syn. of Royal Winter.		Belg.	tp	m	yr	bjm		g	ml	Raised by Dr. John Van Mons; described in 1890.
Mons, De Spoelberg. Syns. Beurre de Spoelberg, Bezi de Spoelberg, Delices Van Spoelberg, Despoilberg, Spoel-bairgh, Vicomte de Spoelberg, Vicomte de Spoelberg.										
Sponge. D'57,481,60,721. Syn. of Clay.										
Sportisman. D'60,735. Syn. of Chasseurs.										
Spreuw. L. Syns. Fausse Spreuw, Fausse Spreuw.										Published by Magazine of Horticulture, 1842, p. 250.

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NOMENCLATURE OF THE PEAR.

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Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Supreme</i> . SW. D'45,339,57,514. E'54,385,59,421. F276,280. Syn. of Jargonelle (Fr.).									
<i>Supreme</i> . P110. K'32,126,41,117. Syn. of Little Muscat.									
<i>Supreme</i> . D'60,883. Syn. of Windsor.									
<i>Supreme Coloma</i> . D'60,796. Syn. of Kopterscher.									
<i>Supreme Coloma</i> . Kopterscher. FGAOfO'92,111. Syn. of Liegel.									
<i>Supreme d'Auray</i> . F282. Syn. of Auray.									
<i>Supreme de Quimper</i> . MagoII'51,290,54,141. MaesII'57,38. D'57,549,69,864. E'59,411. A'62,76. AJOHIVIII'158. CGenXI'190. T'75,283,88,271,97,483. MII8C-76,26. Bulé. Syn. of Quimper.									
<i>Supreme Quimper</i> . F282. Syn. of Quimper.									
<i>Surpasse Crassane</i> . D'57,549,69,864. F282. T'75,556,88,571,97,715. Syn. of Faase Crassane.									
<i>Surpasse Fortune</i> . D'69,768. Syn. of Fortune.									
<i>Surpasse Marie Louise</i> (incorrectly). K'41,133. D'45,404,57,579,69,834. Cult 47,340. F282. Syn. of Marie Louise.									
<i>Surpasse Marie</i> . D'57,581. F282. Syn. of Marie Parent.									
<i>Surpasse Marie</i> . MagoII'50,296. A'54,239. D'57,549,69,864. F282. T'75,556,88,571,97,715. Syn. of Marie Parent.									
<i>Surpasse St. Germain</i> . K'32,138. M'38,93,44,83,47,86. L19.									
<i>Surpasse Virgalleu</i> . M'38,77,44,63,47,70. D'45,416,57,550,69,864. Colel63. E'54,340,59,352. H104. F275. CGenVI'252. T'75,279,85,297,97,474. Syn. Beurre Van Mons. Colmar Van Mons (erroneously), Surpasse Virgalleuse, Virgalleu.	N. Y. ?	robo	ml	yr	beg	p	vg	m	Introduced into England by John Breddick esq. Sent out by A. Parmentier, of Brooklyn, N. Y.
<i>Surpasse Virgalleu</i> . D'45,415,57,550,69,864. MagoII'48,346. Colel63. B'51,308. E'54,340,59,353. Syn. of Surpasse Virgalleu.									
<i>Surprise</i> . AG R'55,296.									Not described. Exhibited by Robert Manning in 1847.
<i>Surreline</i> . MassII'47,69.									
<i>Suzette de Bayay</i> . WHR1'46. OH'65,41,96,58. Syn. of Suzette Sutton.	N. S.	obtp	l	eyru	cojm	s		me	From seed of Bartlett. Raised by William Sutton, of Nova Scotia.
<i>Sutton's Great Britain</i> . FGAOfO'71,26. Dapl54. CanExFR'96,392,03,421. IIIH-'96,194,204. EFABC'00. Syn. of Sutton.									
<i>Suzette</i> . L. Syn. Suzette de Bayay, Suzette de Bayay, Suzette de Bayay (Esperen), Suzette Von Bayay.	Belg.	robo	s	yr	m	s	g	vi	Raised by Maj. Esperen.
<i>Suzette de Bayay</i> . B'51,318. W'74. A'52,96. MagoII'53,40,104. AG R'54,243,56,368. Hort'55,148. D'57,550,69,865. E'54,385,59,411. F282. T'75,290,88,308,97,481. EFABC'00. Syn. of Suzette.									
<i>Suzette de Bayay</i> (Esperen). MagoII'48,210,49,298. E'54,385,59,411. Syn. of Suzette.									
<i>Suzette von Bayay</i> . AofH'91,290. Syn. of Suzette.									

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Supreme</i> . SW. D'45,339,57,514. E'54,385,59,421. FZ76,280. Syn. of Jargonelle (Fr.).									
<i>Supreme</i> . Prio. K'32,126,41,117. Syn. of Little Muscat.									
<i>Supreme</i> . D'69,883. Syn. of Windsor.									
<i>Supreme</i> . D'66,796. Syn. of Kopterscher.									
<i>Supreme</i> . FGAoO'92,111. Syn. of Liegel.									
<i>Supreme d'Auray</i> . F282. Syn. of Auray.									
<i>Supreme de Quimper</i> . Magoffi'51,299,54,141. Masill'57,36. D'57,549,69,864. E-59,411. A'62,76. A'Joffi'V111,158. CGenX1,190. T'75,253,85,271,97,453. M119C-76,28.									
<i>Supreme de Quimper</i> . F282. Syn. of Quimper.									
<i>Supreme Crassane</i> . D'57,546,69,829. F282. T'75,556,85,571,97,715. Syn. of Passe Crassane.									
<i>Supreme de Fortunee</i> . D'69,766. Syn. of Fortunee.									
<i>Supreme Marie Louise</i> . (Incorrectly). K'41,163. D'45,404,57,579,69,834. Cult'47,340. F282. Syn. of Pitt.									
<i>Supreme Meurice</i> . D'57,581. F282. Syn. of Marie Parent.									
<i>Supreme Meurice</i> . Magoffi'50,256. A'54,239. D'57,549,69,864. F282. T'75,555,85,572,97,715. Syn. of Meurice.									
<i>Supreme St. Germain</i> . K'32,158. M'38,93,44,83,47,86. L19.									
<i>Supreme Virgallen</i> . M'38,77,44,63,47,70. D'45,416,57,550,69,864. Colel63. E'54,340,59,352,11,104. F275. CGenV1,252. T'75,270,85,297,97,474. Syn. of Van Mons Colmar Van Mons (erroneously), <i>Supreme Virgalleuse</i> , Virgalleuse.									
<i>Supreme Virgalleuse</i> . D'45,415,57,550,69,864. Magoffi'48,340. Colel63. E'51,308, E'54,340,59,353. Syn. of <i>Supreme Virgalleuse</i> .									
<i>Surprise</i> . A'P'55,296.									
<i>Surzeine</i> . MassH'47,69.									
<i>Suzette de Bayay</i> . W11R1,46. O11'65,41,66,58. Syn. of <i>Suzette</i> .									
<i>Sutton</i> . L. Syn. Sutton's Great Britain.	N. S.	obtp	l	eyru colm	s			me	From seed of Bartlett. Raised by William Sutton, of Nova Scotia.
<i>Sutton's Great Britain</i> . FGAoO'71,26. Dapl54. CanExFR'96,392,03,421. IIIH-96,194,204. EFA'BC'00. Syn. of Sutton.									
<i>Suzette</i> . L. Syna. Suzette de Bayay, Suzette de Bayay, Suzette de Bayay (Esperen), Suzette Von Bavan.	Belg.	robo	s	yrn	m	s	g	vi	Raised by Maj. Esperen.
<i>Suzette de Bayay</i> . B'51,318. Wg'74. A'52,95. Magoffi'53,40,104. AgR'54,243,56,368. Hort'55,148. D'57,550,69,865. E'54,385,59,411. F282. T'75,250,85,306,97,461. EFA'BC'00. Syn. of <i>Suzette</i> .									
<i>Suzette de Bayay</i> (Esperen). Magoffi'48,210,46,298. E'54,385,59,411. Syn. of <i>Suzette</i> .									
<i>Suzette von Bavan</i> . AofH'91,290. Syn. of <i>Suzette</i> .									

Very old and unworthy of cultivation.	m	vp	sp	f	gb	s	ov	rt	m	gary	mj	s	g	jdm	s	g	m	robo	Eur.....	Conn.....	obo	s	yr	jm	sp	me
Swan Egg. L. Syns. Colmar d'Ete, Egg Pear, Ever pear, Kuevett's New Swan's Egg, Little Swan's Egg, Moor Fowl Egg, Moor-fowl Egg (incorrectly), Moor-fowl's Egg of Boston, New Swan's Egg, Poire d'Auch, Poire d'Enf, Swan's Egg, Swan's Egg, GarCalist, C195, Pr36.130, K'32.141, '41.119.128, GenF'23.197, '37.278, Cult' 39.66, S.W., MagroH'50.296, A'54.229, E'54.400, '59.424, D'57.583, '69.895, T'75.556, '85.572, '97.715, Syn. of Swan Egg.																										
Swan's Orange. D'45.414, '57.528, '69.823, MagroH'46.492, '49.236, Cult' 48.307, '51.211, Colelet5, B'51.307, '83.372, Hov'1.21, Wg'74, Agr'50.94, '56.337, E'54.332, '59.401, WHRII.350, H1105, A'62.70, T'97.715, AHME57, Syn. of Onondaga.																										
Sweet August. IHRII.71.183																										
Sweet Summer. D'45.337, '57.514, '69.758, E'54.373, '59.393, F'280, Syn. of Jargonelle (Eng.).																										
Sweetwater. WHRI.45																										
Swiss. IalI' 83.101, IHRII' 90.126, '94.137, '96.45.204.																										
Swiss Bergamot. Pr74, D'45.307, '57.564, '69.865, MagroH'50.296, E'54.400, '59.424, T'75.556, '85.572, '97.715, Syns. Bergamot Royce, Bergamot Suisse, Bergamotte Suisse Bergamot. F'277, Syn. of Suisse.																										
Swithlin. R. Syn. Saint Swithlin.																										
Seckle. D'45.415, '57.445, '69.832, Syn. of Seckel.																										
Sytle. Hov'1.23, E'54.535, '59.347, Syn. of Seckel.																										
Sylvauche. Pr77, D'69.896, Syn. of Sylvauche.																										
Sylvauche Vert d'Hiver. D'45.360, '57.424, Syn. of Diel.																										
Sylvauche Vert. M'38.90, '44.78, Cult' 47.340, Syn. of Diel.																										
Sylvauche Vert. Pr77, D'45.413, '57.583, '69.866, E'54.400, '59.425, H1105, F'283, T'75, '556, '85.572, '97.715, Syns. Bergamot Sylvauche, Bergamot Sylvauche, Bergamotte Sylvauche, Green Sylvauche, Silvanblume, Sylvauche, Sylvauche Pierard, Sylvauche Vert d'Hiver, Green Winter Sylvauche, Sylvauche Vert, Winter Sylvauche.																										
Sylvauche d'Hiver. D'69.790, Syn. of Sylvauche.																										
Sylvauche Vert. K'32.183, '41.137, GenF'37.277, Syn. of Sylvauche.																										
Sylvauche Vert d'Hiver. Pr214, K'41.126, Syn. of Sylvauche.																										
Sylvauche Vert. HMHS222, Syn. of Diel.																										
Sylvauche Vert d'Hiver. K'41.156, Hov'1.77, F'277, D'69.886, Syn. of Diel.																										
Sylvauche d'Autonne. Dap155, Syn. of Wurtemberg.																										
Sylvauche d'Hiver. Dap155, Syn. of Wurtemberg.																										
Tabunskite. MichI'76.143.																										
Tachete. L. Syn. Seigneur Tachete.																										
Tacon. L. Syn. Beurre Tacon.																										
Tacotat. R. Syn. St. Germain Tacotat.																										
Talke. AofH'91.290, T'97.706, '715, Syn. of Golden Russet.																										
Takasaki. Gall'92.49.54.																										
Talmadge. Hort'70.125, Dap154, MassH'80.236, A'81.123, Syns. Northford Seckel, Northford Seckling.																										
Talmont. F'283.																										
Tanne. R. Syn. Beurre Tanné.																										
Tardif de Mons. D'69.866, Syn. of Mons (Tardif).																										

The Dean.	JVL'98, '02.	N. C. ?	vl	vg	me	Cultivated for many years at Oak Ridge, N. C.	
<i>The Double Flower.</i>	Pr107. Syn. of Double Flower.						
<i>The Fairest or Supreme.</i>	Pr28. Syn. of Beauty (Sum.)						
<i>Thellens.</i>	R. Syn. Paul Thellens.					Published by Magazine of Horticulture, 1882, p. 474.	
<i>The Marquis.</i>	EFABC'00. Syn. of Marquise.	Belg.	obl p	v	m	Supposed to have originated with Dr. John Van Mons in 1827.	
<i>The My God Pear.</i>	Pr37. D'69, 456. Syn. of Mon Dieu.		ml	gyru			
<i>Theodore.</i>	E'54, 385. Syn. Theodore Van Mons.						
<i>Theodore Van Mons.</i>	MassH'53, 17. AgrF'54, 245. Hort'54, 79, 50, 32. E'54, 385, 59, 411. D'75, 551, '60, 867. Cult'58, 110. CGenH'11, 11. HEH&B'73. F'75, 267, 85, 285, 97, 465. Syn. of Theodore.						
<i>The Prince.</i>	L. Synus. Poire de Prince, The Prince's Pear.	Fr.	r	yr	me		
<i>The Prince's Pear.</i>	Pr35. Syn. of The Prince.						
<i>The Princess.</i>	Pr11. D'60, 818. Syn. of Muscat Robert.	Fr.	rov	gm	sp	Originated in Malines, France.	
<i>Therese.</i>	CanH'89, 10, 11. GHM&S'90. Syn. Bonne Therese.						
<i>Therese Aperi.</i>	AHortA'70, 75. A'71, 55. Dupl36. AgrF'75, 381. T'75, 556, 85, 572, '97, 716. Mich'75, 285. E&B'94. AHM'95. Syn. of Appert.						
<i>Therese Kump.</i>	MagoffH'53, 151. D'69, 808. Syn. of Appert.						
<i>The Rose Pear.</i>	Pr38. D'69, 803. Syn. of Rose (Sum.).	Belg.	ms	gyru	a g m	Not described. Raised by Dr. John Van Mons. Fruited in 1844.	
<i>The Roussette.</i>	D'60, 843. Syn. of Summer King.					Raised by Jules Thierard, Bethel, France.	
<i>The Two Sisters.</i>	D'60, 736. Syn. of Sisters.						
<i>Thick Twig.</i>	CanExFR'96, 139.						
<i>Thielsen.</i>	R. Synus. Paul Thieden, Paul Thielens.	Fr.	r	gbru	l		
<i>Thierard.</i>	L. Syn. Lydia Thierard.						
<i>Thiesotte.</i>	D'69, 678. Syn. of Amanlis.	Rus.				Introduced from Russia in 1879.	
<i>Thlatwig.</i>	Gb. CanExFR'96, 136. Synus. Limbertwig, Smolensk, Tonkavetka.					In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.	
<i>Tonkavietka.</i>	Tonkavetka.					Named by Robert Thompson, of London Horticultural Society.	
<i>Thirriot.</i>	EFABC'00. CanExFR'02, 379. Synus. Fondante de Thirriot, Fontaine Thirriot.	Eng.	obl p	mj	sp	Rejected by Congress of Fruit Growers, 1840.	
<i>Thompson.</i>	ColeH'7. NWFG'53, 128. CGenXXVI, 190. CanExFR'95, 391.	N. H. ?	obop	bm	sp		
<i>Thompson (N. H.).</i>	Synus. Thompson's, Thompson's of London, Thompson.						
<i>Thompson of N. Hampshire.</i>	MagoffH'50, 296. A'54, 239. Syn. of Thompson (N. H.)						
<i>Thompson of N. York.</i>	K'72, 198. GbH'53, 19. Cult'58, 66, 46, 53. MagoffH'57, 51, 45, 50, 47, 345. D'64, 47, 57, 55, 67, 60, 388. M'47, 363. E'54, 342, 56, 363. F'283. T'75, 279, 85, 297, 97, 474. AdH'92, 27. Syn. of Thompson.						
<i>Thompson's London.</i>	Syn. of Thompson.						
<i>Thompson's Lady.</i>	WHH'11, 102. Syn. of Thompson.	Belg.	ov	y	cod	s p me	Introduced in 1854; not desirable.
<i>Thornless Ambrette.</i>	Pr122. Syn. of Ambrette (Thornless).						
<i>Thorny Ambrette.</i>	Pr122. D'69, 658. Syn. of Ambrette.	Belg.	robl	mj	s g	me	Originated by Dr. John Van Mons.
<i>Thorny Colmar.</i>	L. Syn. Colmar Epine.						
<i>Thorny Rose.</i>	Pr38. K'32, 132, 41, 119. D'45, 345, 57, 583, '60, 863. E'54, 399, 59, 424. F'82. Syn. of Rose (Sum.).	Vt.	obl p	co	d	g p l	Originated at Brandon, Vt.
<i>Thorp.</i>	D'57, 553. MagoffH'58, 516. F'275. E'59, 411. Syn. Prindle	Fr. ?	obl p	ml			
<i>Thomau.</i>	L. Synus. Belle de Jersey, Belle de Thouars, Belle de Thouars, Belle de Troyes, Coulon de Saint Marc, Poire St. Marc, Saint Marc.						

Torpes. R. Syn. De Torpes.....									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Toscane. R. Syn. Grand duc de Toscane.....									Published in Magazine of Horticulture, 1855, p. 146.
Totleben. L. Syns. General Totleben, Gen. Todtleben, General Totleben, Gen. Totleben.....	Fr. 7	obop	ml	gyru	cojm	avp	vg	m	Raised by M. Fontaine. Fruited in 1855.
Totten. L. Syn. Totten's Seedling.....	Conn.	rp	s	ycru		s	p		Raised by Col. Totten, of New Haven, Conn.
<i>Totten's Seedling.</i> MagoffH'48, 100. D'57, 553, '60, 868. F275. E'50, 411. T'75, 556, '85, 572.									
Toutin. Syn. of Totten.....									
Touard. K'41, 153. Syns. Culebasse Touard, Touard's Flask, Touard Pear.....	Belg.	oblp	m	gyru	cojm	sp	g-vg	m	Raised by Dr. John Van Mons.
Touard's Flak. CanEx, FR'62, 280. Syn. of Touard.....									
Touard Pear. MagoffH'42, 104. Syn. of Touard.....									
Touard. F280. Syn. of Flemish.....									
Tourasse. R. Syn. Pierre Tourasse.....									
Tournay. R. Syn. Tournay d'Ilver.....									
Tournay d'Ilver. EFABC'00. Syn. of Tournay.....									
Treasure. Pril17. D'69, 659. Syn. of Amour.....									
Trenton. SW.....									
Trescott. Cole158. D'69, 860.....	R. I.	robo	m	ycru	gmj	g	me		In Silas Wharton's collection in 1824.
Tresor. Pril17. K'32, 140, '41, 124. D'69, 659. Syn. of Amour.....									Origin with Niles Treseott, Cranton, R. I.
Tresortier. EFABC'00.....									
Trevoux. R. Syn. Precoc de Trevoux.....									
Treyve. L. Bulé. Syns. Madame Treyve, Souvenir de Madame Treyve.....	Fr.	obop	m	yr	mj	sp		me	In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Triguer. R. Syn. Beurre Triguer.....									Raised by M. Treyve, of Trevon, France.
Trimble. AgR'54, 293. D'69, 773. Syn. of Glout Moreau.....									Published by Magazine of Horticulture, 1862, p. 150.
Triomphe de Hasselt. AgR'54, 245. F278, 283. E'50, 363. D'69, 873. Syn. of Van Marum.....									
Triomphe de Jodoigne. MagoffH'48, 112, '40, 107, '54, 140, 462. Hort'51, 115. B'51, 318. AgR'53, 282, '73, 381. E'54, 385, '60, 412. H'68. D'57, 553, '60, 860. F283. T'75, 567, '85, 285.									
Triomphe de Lorraine. K'41, 154. D'69, 860. Syn. of Lorraine (Triomphe).....									
Triomphe de la Pomologie. MagoffH'54, 226. F283. Syn. of Pomologie.....									
Triomphe de Pomologie. D'69, 728. Syn. of Pomologie.....									
Triomphe de Souvenir. F283. Syn. of Lorraine (Triomphe).....									
Triomphe de Tournay. EFABC'00.....									
Triomphe de Vienna. CanH'88, 261, '89, 352, '90, 300. WNYH'93, 44, '96, 26. IIIH'96, 204, 239. BBL. EFABC'00. CanH'02, 441. Syn. of Vienna.....									
Triomphe du Nord. AgR'54, 245. F278. E'50, 363. D'69, 873. Syn. of Van Marum.....									
Triumph. BBL.....									
Triumph. SBro. CanH'02, 441. EFSoO'02, 14. FGAofO'04, 11. Syn. of Vienna.....									
Trois Jours. Cult'47, 340. Syn. Poire des Trois Jours.....			l		b		g	ml	In Benjamin Buckman's trial list.

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Troten Martin</i> . D'69,814. Syn. of Sec.									
<i>Trompe Cassaire</i> . Pr134. Syn. of Cassaire.									
<i>Trompe Valet</i> . Pr122. K'32,141. E'54,380, '59,417. D'69,358. Syn. of Ambrette.									
<i>Trou</i> . R. Syn. Bon de la Mare au Trou.	Fr.	robtp	ml	gyru	jm	va	g-vg	ml	Published in Horticultural Art Journal, 1898, p. 74. Originated at Saint Remy, France, in 1846.
<i>Trousseau</i> . L. Syns. Docteur Trousseau, Docteur Trousseau.									
<i>Troul Pear</i> . DomEucIV 150. Pr130. K'32,173. MagoffH'37,49. Cult'38,66. D'45, 289, '57,590, '69,765. Cole170. B'51,305. W'g. 70. E'54,368, '59,383. T'75,556, '85,572, '97,716. Syn. of Forelle.									
<i>Trouve</i> . Pr115. K'41,125.									
<i>Troune de Montigny</i> . Pr48. GenF'37,277. MagoffH'46,198. E'54,355, '59,366. D'57, 474, '69,701. F278. Syn. of Montigny.									
<i>Trubachardy Duile</i> . MassH'46,151. Syn. of Trubachardy Duile.									
<i>Trubachardy Duile</i> . A'54,229, '56,218. Syns. Trubachardy Duile, Trubachardy Duile.									
<i>Trubachardy Duile</i> . MagoffH'50,286. Syn. of Trubachardy Duile.									
<i>Truckhill</i> . L. Syn. Truckhill Bergamot.									
<i>Truckhill Bergamot</i> . MagoffH'45,327. D'69,869. Syn. of Truckhill.		rob	ml	gyru	mcois		g	m	
<i>True Golden Beurre</i> . Pr46. Syn. of Brown.									
<i>Tsaur</i> . CanH'94,283.									
<i>Tsarskaya</i> . Gb. Syn. of Czar.									
<i>Tucker</i> . R. Syn. Tucker's Bon Chretien.									
<i>Tucker's Bon Chretien</i> . MagoffH'38,395. MassH'44,64. A'54,240. Syn. of Tucker.									
<i>Tucker Seedling</i> . R. Syn. Tucker's Seedling.									
<i>Tucker's Seedling</i> . MassH'44,61. MagoffH'50,286. A'54,240. Syn. of Tucker Seedling.									
<i>Tador</i> . A'67,187.									
<i>Tuerlinckx</i> . D'69,868. Syn. of Tuerlinckx.									
<i>Tuing</i> . F277. Syn. of Easter Bergamot.									
<i>Tunipet</i> . Pr163. Syn. of Remy.									
<i>Tunipet or Pear</i> . Pr49. K'32,122. D'69,825. Syn. of Orange Striped.									
<i>Tunip Pear</i> . Pr49. K'41,120. Syn. of Orange Striped.									
<i>Turkish MagoffH'</i> 40,390. W'Pr11. MassH'44,61. Cult'47,340. Pr41. MagoffH'51,34.									
<i>Turkish Bon Chretien</i> . W'Pr11. MassH'44,61. Cult'47,340. Pr41. MagoffH'51,34.									
<i>Turkish Pear</i> . Pr41. D'69,761. Syn. of Bon Chretien (Fl.).									
<i>Turner</i> . L. Syn. Doctor Turner.									
<i>Turner's Early</i> (of Illinois). Dup155. A'75,488. Syn. of Early Rousselet.									
<i>Twenty Fifth Anniversary de Leopold I</i> . D'69,869. Syn. of Anniversary.									

Two Headed. Pr29. Syns. Deux tetes, Double Headed, Double Calice, Poire a deux têtes.		t	gybr	j	pa	e	A deep suture gives the fruit the appearance of being double. In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C. Doubtless named for President John Tyler.
Two Sisters. EFABC'00.	Conn...	rp	ms yru	coglm	v	g m	
Tyler. MassH'43.5. MagofH'45, 437, 40, 43. D'57, 553, 69, 869. F275. E'59, 412. T 75, 156, 85, 572, 97, 716.							
<i>Typachoro.</i> GenF'41, 91. Syn. of Chelmsford.							
<i>Tynelle.</i> D 69, 760. Syn. of Jammette.							
Tyson. MagofH'40, 18, 19, 41, 169. D'69, 719. Syn. of Chelmsford.							
Tyson. MagofH'46, 433. Hort'47, 433, 155, 62, 71, 285, 73, 22, 75, 244. MassH'47, 54. Cole-154. AgrE'50, 94, 54, 249. B'51, 302, 83, 305. W'74. Hort'33. Cult'54, 886. E'54, 341, 79, 351. D'57, 445, 69, 870. H196. F259. A'62, 70. F152. T'75, 253, 65, 271, 97, 453. H185, 292.	Pa.	ap	ms yeru	djm	sp	g-vg me	Originated in 1837. Shown at meeting of Massachusetts Horticultural Society, 1842.
Uccle. L. Syn. Marie Louise d'Uccle.	Belg.	robop	ml ybru	jm	va	g-vg m	Raised from seed of Marie Louise.
Udal. Hort'52, 482. D'57, 514, 69, 767. F280. Syn. of Jargonelle (Fr.).							
Udale's Warden. K'32, 151, 41, 129. Syn. of Tonneau.							
Udal Seedling. R. Syn. Udal's Seedling.	Me.?						Recommended by Gen. Herrick, of Maine.
Udal's Seedling. Hort'48, 415. Syn. of Udal Seedling.							In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Ukraine. R. Syn. Ukraine Bergamotte.							In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Ukraine Bergamotte. CanExFR'96, 136. Syn. of Ukraine.							In experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Ulm. EFABC'00.							
Ulmier. R. Syn. Beurre Ulmier.							
Union. E'54, 334, 59, 346. D'69, 835. Syn. of Pound.							
Union. Pr130. K'32, 151, 41, 129. GenF'33, 197. Syn. of Tonneau.							
Unknown Chenau. Pr65. Syn. of Brest.							
Unknown La Fare. Pr65. Syn. of Saint Germain.							
Upper Crust. Hort'40, 276. E'54, 385, 70, 412. D'57, 553, 69, 870. H198. F275. A'67, 180, 73, 118. T'75, 556, 85, 572, 97, 716.	S. C.	r	ms gru	g	p	me	
Urbaniste. Pr206. K'32, 185, 41, 154. M'38, 85, 44, 54, 47, 63. GenF'33, 197. Cult'39, 66.	Fl.	obop	ml yru	bmj	p	vg-b ml	
IndF'40, 187. MagofH'44, 131. D'45, 417, 57, 445, 69, 871. Cole166. B'51, 308, 83, 374. W'74. Hort'121. E'54, 342, 59, 352. H198. F222. T'75, 267, 85, 285, 97, 465. Syns. Beurre Drapez, Beurre du Roi, Beurre Piquery, Beurre Piquery, Coloma d'Autonne, Count Coloma, Henkel d'Hiver, Louis Dupont, Louise d'Orleans, Louise d'Orleans, Piquery, St. Marc, St. Mark, St. Meare, Urbaniste Seedling.							Originated in South Carolina; introduced by Col. Sumner. Originated by Count Coloma, of Malines.
Urbaniste Seedling. F283. D'69, 871. Syn. of Urbaniste.							
Ursula. D'69, 872. Syn. Ursula.		oblp	ms yeru	bmj	s	g-vg m	
Ursula. Hort'61, 219. Syn. of Ursula.							
Ursula. St. Germain. Pr130. K'32, 151, 41, 129. GenF'33, 197. W'73. E'54, 334, 59, 346. D'57, 537, 10, 835. H198. F283. AgrE'50, 423. Syn. of Pound.							
Ursula's St. Germain. Pr130. K'32, 151, 41, 129. GenF'33, 197. D'45, 448. Syn. of Tonneau.							
Ursula's Warden. E'54, 334, 59, 346. Syn. of Pound.							
Ursula's Warden. GenF'33, 197. D'45, 448. Syn. of Tonneau.							
Ursula. Hort'50, 35. MagofH'57, 102. D'57, 554, 69, 872. E'59, 412. F275. T'75, 257, 85, 275. Syns. Dowling Round Top.	Pa.	robo	ms yru	mj	vp	g-vg me	Originated with Mrs. Dowlin, Uxehland, Pa. Published by Field, p. 278; not described.
Vaast. L. Syns. Beurre Beaumont, Bezi Saint Vaast.	For.						Exhibited by Robert Manning in 1848.
Vacat. MagofH'43, 388. MassH'46, 99.							

[illegible]

Catalogue-index of the known varieties of pears referred to in American publications from 1804 to 1907—Continued.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
<i>Van Mons No. 1218.</i> MagofH'42,60. D'45,372,'57,570. E'54,393,'58,420. Syn. of Commodore.									
<i>Van Mons No. 1228.</i> MagofH'42,60. D'45,376,'57,569,'69,722. E'54,392,'58,419. Syn. of Clinton.									
<i>Van Mons No. 1252.</i> MassH'45,90. [Perhaps not disseminated]									
<i>Van Mons No. 1258.</i> MassH'48,90. [Perhaps not disseminated]									
<i>Van Mons No. 1296.</i> MagofH'45,388. MassH'51,175. [Perhaps not disseminated]									
<i>Van Mons No. 1326.</i> MassH'48,90,'51,175. [Perhaps not disseminated]									
<i>Van Mons No. 1451.</i> MassH'48,90. [Perhaps not disseminated]									
<i>Van Mons No. 1454.</i> MassH'48,90. [Perhaps not disseminated]									
<i>Van Mons No. 1458.</i> MagofH'46,147. MassH'48,90. [Perhaps not disseminated]									
<i>Van Mons No. 1535.</i> MassH'48,90. [Perhaps not disseminated]									
<i>Van Mons No. 1536.</i> MagofH'45,388. [Perhaps not disseminated]									
<i>Van Mons No. 1590.</i> MagofH'45,388. [Perhaps not disseminated]									
<i>Van Mons No. 1602.</i> MassH'48,90. [Perhaps not disseminated]									
<i>Van Mons No. 1825.</i> MassH'53,18. [Perhaps not disseminated]									
<i>Van Mons St. Germain.</i> D'69,874. Syn. of New St. Germain									
<i>Van Mon's Seedling.</i> Gall'96,35,50.									
<i>Yannes de St. Hays.</i> MagofH'55,146. Syn. of St. Hays.									
<i>Yanstaile.</i> L. Syn. La Vanstaile.									
<i>Vauquelin.</i> MagofH'48,112. F283. D'69,874. T'85,572. CanExFR'03,422. Syna.	Fr.	p oblp	m	r gbur	jm	va	g	m	Exhibited by P. J. Berckmans; said to be promising.
<i>Poire Vauquelin, Saint German Vauquelin.</i>									Originated at Rouen, France.
<i>Vantais.</i> R. Syna. Enfant Nantais, Enfant Vantais.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Van Vranken.</i> D'69,849. Syn. of Secandaga.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Varigaud.</i> G. Syna. P.776. Syn. of Crassane Panache.									Originated at Brookline, Mass., by Dr. S. Shurtleff.
<i>Vareane.</i> R. Syn. Directeur Varenne.									Ripe in August, but will keep till October.
<i>Varuna.</i> MassH'66,44.	Mass.								Received from Rouen, France.
<i>Vaschanka.</i> CanH'04,291. Syn. Poire Cire.	Rus.?								
<i>Vauquelin.</i> MagofH'48,112. D'57,554,'69,874. F283. T'75,557,'85,572,'97,716. EF-ABC'm. CanExFR'03,422. Syna. Poire Saintin, Poire Vauquelin, Saint Germain Vauquelin.	Fr.	oblp	m	y gbur	jm	va	vg g	me l	
<i>Vaux.</i> L. Syna. Cadet de Vaux, Cadette de Vaux.									
<i>Vermula d'Etc.</i> F242. Syn. of Wurtemberg.		obtp	l	ybr	dmj	sp	g	vl	
<i>Venerable.</i> R. Syn. Souvenir du Venerable de la Salle.									
<i>Verdasee.</i> Gen.F'37,277. Syn. of Cascolette.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
<i>Verdette.</i> D'69,861. Syn. of Green Sweet.									

NOMENCLATURE OF THE PEAR.

Name of pear.	Origin.	Form.	Size.	Color.	Texture.	Flavor.	Quality.	Season.	Remarks.
Vicar. IIIH'67.130. Bul6.8. FFSoFo'01.22. AHM267. Syns. Belle Adrienne, Belle Heloise Clon, Bon Papa, Bourgermeister, Bourgermeister, Burgomaster, Clon, Comice de Toulon, Cuillette d'Hiver, Cure, Cuillette, De Clon, De Monsieur Le Cure, Duc de Bordeaux, Du Cure, Dumas, Du Pradel, Epine Dumas, Grosse Allongee, Jouffroy, Le Cure, Messire d'Hiver, Missire d'Hiver, Monsieur, Monsieur Le Cure, Pater Notte, Poire Monsieur le Cure, Pradello de Catalogue, Vicair de Winkfield, Vicar of Wakefield, Vicar of Winkfield, Winkfield.	Fr.....	oblp	l	yb	jb	a	g	ml	Was discovered in the forests of Clon, France.
Vicar Junior. MassH'72.92. Hort 75.1	Mass.								From seed of Vicar; originated by Col. M. P. Wilder.
Vicar of Wakefield. E'54.344.79.354. IIIH'67.130. FE53. Syn. of Vicar.									
Vicar of Winkfield. K'41.139. MagoH'43.129.299. D'45.448.57.557. 69.875. Cole-108. B'51.310. 83.377. W'675. HovI'47. E'54.344.79.354. G85. T'75.280.85. 308.97.481. WnI'327.11.337.111.259. Bul8. Syn. of Vicar.									
Vice President Delahaye. EFABC'00. Syn. of Decaye.									
Vicker. Moh'80.235. Agr'92.262. Syn. of Victor.									
Vicomte de Spiekerb. F283. Syn. of Spiekerb.									
Vicomte de Spiekerb. K'32.199.41.166. MagoH'46.263. HovI'13. E'54.385.59. 412. D'57.558. 69.877. T'75.265. 80.311. 97.484. Syn. of Spiekerb.									
Vicomte de Spiekerb. MagoH'45.370. B'51.319. HovI'13. Agr'54.251. E'54.385.59.412. Syn. of Spiekerb.									
Victor. SBro'91. Agr'92.262. A'95.73. BBL. CanExFR'95.392. IIIH'96.178.194. Syns. Miller's Victor, Vicker.	Pa.								Taken to Missouri by Samuel Miller; introduced by Stark Bros.
Victor Hugo. EFABC'00. Syn. of Hugo.	Eng.							l	Raised by Rev. John Hayshe.
Victoria. MagoH'58.276.146. CanExFR'96.136.									Introduced from Russia in 1879.
Victoria. D'68.773. Syn. of Glout Morceau.									
Victoria. Gh'Neb'90.139. IaB3. IIIH'92.172. IaH'94.170. MichB104. EFABC'00. Syn. Victoria Mnogoplochnaya.	Rus.	t		yg	cog	v	p		
Victoria Mnogoplochnaya. Ob. Syn. of Victoria.									
Vidovka. EFABC'00.									
Vienne. R. Syns. Thomphe de Vienne, Triumph.	Fr.			gy	bj	s	vg	me	In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Vierry. R. Syn. Schaching Vierry.									Fruited at Hamilton, Ontario, in 1887.
Vigne. Pr58. K'41.122. MagoH'43.132. Syns. Demoiselle, Poire de Vigne, Vine or Lady's, Vine Pear, Vigne Demoiselle, Vine or Damsel.		t		ru	m			m	Shown by Robert Manning in 1846.
Vigneau. R. Syn. Secretary Alfred Vigneau.									In the experimental orchard at Agassiz, B. C.
Vigne Demoiselle. Pr58. Syn. of Vigne.									
Vignes. D'69.733. Syn. of Hardenpont (Aug.).									
Vigneuse d'Espereu. F283. Syn. of Vigneuse.									

[illegible]

Worcester, L. Syns. Black Pear of Worcester, Black Worcester, Iron, Parkin- worden's Warden. Warden. AoffH'90,203. Syns. Worden's Meadow, Worden (Seckel), Worden's Seckel.	oblp	N. Y.	m	gru	co	g	l	Only desirable for the kitchen and market. Meadow may be dis- tinct. See Cultivator, 1845, p. 340.
Worden's Meadow. Cult'45,340. Syn. of Worden. Worden (Seckel). L. St. BBL. Syn. of Worden. Worden's Seckel. A.JoffH'91,296,92,277. C(O)HS91,147. C'tP'03,13. T'97,465. AHM268. Syn. of Worden. Wormsley. L. Syn. Wormsley Grange. Wormsley Grange. K'92,178,41,130. GenF'33,197. MagoffH'43,132. Syn. of Wormsley.	oblp	Eng.	m	ybr	b		m	
Woronson. L. T'97,717. Syns. Beurre Woronson, Beurre Woronzon, Beurre Woronzon.			m	y			m	Thomas says: "Very produc- tive."
Wredon. MagoffH'40,390. Syn. of Wredow Wredon. MagoffH'92,474,53,102,56,226. E'54,388,59,415. D'57,562,760,886. F283. PaFS71,66. T'75,537,85,573,97,717. Syns. Widow, Wredon. Wredow. Dup155. A'75,68. Syn. of Charles Delight 1st.	obop	Fr.	m	gyeru	jm	v	g-vg	
Wright. R. Syn. Wright's Monarch.								Possibly a misprint for Knight (K. Monarch).
Wright's Monarch. JallH'84,509. Syn. of Wright. Wright Pear. OH'83,177. Syn. of Craig. Wurmskale. MassH'44,40								Shown by Josiah Lovill, of Bev- erly, Mass. Authors differ in regard to its origin.
Wurtemberg. MagoffH'37,36. IndP'40,182. K'41,145. WHRII,554. Syns. Beurre de Montgeon, Capimant (of Boston), Frederic de Wurtemberg, Fred- erick de Wurtemberg, Frederick of Wurtemberg, Frederic of Wurtemberg, King of Wurtemberg, Medaille d'Or, Rio de Wurtemberg, Sommer Vermillon, Syl- vestre d'Autonne, Sylvestre d'Hilver, Vermulen d'Ete, Vermillon d'Ete, Wurtemberg (incorrectly). GenF'33,197. D'45,401,57,826. F281. Syn. of Napo- leon.	p	(?)	l	ybru	jm	s	g	
Wurtzer. R. Syn. Wurtzer d'Autonne.								Rejected by Congress of Fruit Growers, 1849.
Wurtzer d'Autonne. MagoffH'50,296. Syn. of Wurtzer. Wurtzer. E'54,401,59,425. Syn. Wurtzer d'Autonne. Wurtzer d'Autonne. MassH'45,88,45,90. A'54,240. E'54,401,59,425. Syn. of Wurtzer.	p	Eur.	m	yru			ml	Probably same as the preceding.
Yair. L. Syns. Grand Monarque, Green Pear of Yair, Green Yair.	obo	Eur.	m	g	j	p	g	Has not proved valuable in America.
Yale. A'58,92. Syn. Ives' Yale.	r	Conn.	m	gybru	j		g	Released by Dr. Eli Ives, New Ha- ven, Conn.
Yat. Priort. MagoffH'43,130. D'45,422,57,585,60,886. E'54,401,59,425. F283. Yat. H'72,297. T'75,558,85,573,97,717. E'54,401,59,425. F283. Gris d'Ete. Buist, De Hollande, Graue Sommer Butterbirne, Gute Graue, Jut- tebirne, Jutte, Jut-peer, Yut, Yutte. Yat or Yut Fear. Pr154. Syn. of Echasserie. Yellow Butier. SW. K'41,121. D'45,378,57,439,60,880. E'54,322,59,336. F224. AGR'62,183. T'75,558,85,573,97,717. Syn. of White Doyenne. York. L. Syn. Early York. York Berganot. Pr171. K'32,133. GenF'33,196,37,227. D'45,366,57,565,60,663. Y'54,386,56,417. T'75,558,85,573,97,717. Syn. of Berganot (Aut.).	obo	Conn.	s	ybru	dj	s	p	
	obop	Conn.	ml	y			g	Published by Field, p. 273.

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INDEX.

	Page.
Abbreviations used in citations of authors.....	12-16
descriptions of varieties.....	11-16
designating publications quoted.....	12-16
American Pomological Society, code of nomenclature.....	8, 9-11
Authors and publications, abbreviations used in citations.....	12-16
Bibliography, American, of the pear, 1804 to 1907.....	263-265
Catalogue-index of known varieties, arrangement and abbreviations used.....	11-16
list with descriptions.....	17-262
Code of nomenclature of American Pomological Society.....	8, 9-11
Color of varieties of pears.....	17-262
Descriptions of varieties, abbreviations used.....	11-12, 17-262
Flavor of varieties of pears.....	17-262
Form of varieties of pears.....	17-262
Index-catalogue of known varieties, list.....	17-262
to American literature of the pear, 1804 to 1907.....	263-265
List, alphabetic, of abbreviations used in designating publications quoted....	12-16
Literature of the pear, American, 1804 to 1907, abbreviations used in citations	
of authors and publications.....	12-16
index.....	263-265
Manning, Robert, statement as to importance of correct nomenclature.....	7
Names, distinguishing, applied to two or more distinct varieties.....	9
form, rules of code of nomenclature.....	10
leading, in catalogue, explanation.....	9
varieties of pears.....	17-262
<i>See also</i> Nomenclature.	
Nomenclature, catalogue-index, with descriptions.....	17-262
code of American Pomological Society.....	8, 9-11
correct, importance.....	7-9
<i>See also</i> Names.	
Origin of varieties of pears.....	17-262
Priority, rules of code of nomenclature.....	9-10
Publication, rules of code of nomenclature.....	10-11
Publications quoted, abbreviations used in designation.....	12-16
Quality of varieties of pears.....	17-262
Remarks upon varieties of pears.....	17-262
Season of varieties of pears.....	17-262
Size of varieties of pears.....	17-262
Texture of varieties of pears.....	17-262
Varieties of pears, catalogue-index, arrangement and abbreviations used.....	11-16
color.....	17-262
descriptions, abbreviations used.....	11-12, 17-262
flavor.....	17-262
form.....	17-262

	Page.
Varieties of pears, known, index-catalogue.....	17-262
names	17-262
origin	17-262
quality	17-262
remarks	17-262
season	17-262
size	17-262
texture	17-262
Wilder, Col. Marshall P., statement as to importance of improved nomenclature	8

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BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY—BULLETIN NO. 127.

B. T. GALLOWAY, *Chief of Bureau.*

THE IMPROVEMENT OF MOUNTAIN MEADOWS.

BY

J. S. COTTON,

SCIENTIFIC ASSISTANT, FARM MANAGEMENT INVESTIGATIONS.

ISSUED APRIL 14, 1908.



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1908.

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY,
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF,
Washington, D. C., January 17, 1908.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith a paper entitled "The Improvement of Mountain Meadows," by Mr. J. S. Cotton, of the Office of Farm Management Investigations of this Bureau, and recommend its publication as Bulletin No. 127 of the Bureau series.

Experiments in reseeding mountain meadows were begun by this Bureau in 1902 and have been continued since that time. The results obtained enable us to draw a number of important conclusions concerning the practicability of reseeding ranges at high elevations in our Western States. Our experience also enables us to determine fairly accurately the cost of reseeding, the best manner for doing the work, and the resulting increase in the carrying capacity of the ranges. It is rather a striking circumstance that the only results of value that have been secured in these experiments have been with the ordinary tame grasses. Generally speaking, native grasses and forage plants have seed habits which render their artificial propagation on the ranges impracticable. Mr. Cotton has shown that mountain meadows may be reseeded at an expense which is commensurate with the returns to be secured.

The information contained in this bulletin should be of value to those who own ranges in the mountains or are responsible for their administration.

Respectfully,

B. T. GALLOWAY,
Chief of Bureau.

HON. JAMES WILSON,
Secretary of Agriculture.

CONTENTS

	Page.
Introduction	7
Wenache Mountain station	8
Seeding experiments	8
Management of station	9
Grasses tested	10
Timothy	10
Redtop	10
Tall fescue	11
Orchard grass	11
Brome-grass	11
Mountain brome-grass	11
Cheat	12
Kentucky bluegrass	12
Canada bluegrass	12
Perennial and Italian rye-grasses	12
Hard fescue	12
Sheep's-fescue	13
Native sheep's-fescue	13
Slender wheat-grass	13
Western wheat-grass	13
White clover	13
Red clover	14
Alsike clover	14
Vetches	14
Experiments of Babcock & Benson	14
Experiments on the Cooke & Bull cattle range	14
Timothy	15
Redtop	15
White clover	15
Other grasses	15
Results of reseeding investigations	15
Timothy	16
Redtop	18
Tall fescue	19
Orchard grass	19
Brome-grass	19
Mountain brome-grass	20
Slender wheat-grass	20
Clovers	21
Methods of reseeding	21
Other improvements	22
Drainage	22
Filling in washouts	23
Irrigation	28
Conclusions	23
Description of plates	26
Index	27

ILLUSTRATIONS.

	Page.
PLATE I. Mountain meadows that should be reseeded. Fig. 1.—A typical moist mountain meadow where the original vegetation has been destroyed. Fig. 2.—The edge of an overgrazed meadow where timothy and redtop should be sown.....	26
II. Results of reseeding. Fig. 1.—A portion of a mountain meadow restored through protection. Fig. 2.—A portion of the same meadow seeded to timothy.....	26
III. Plots at the Wenache Mountain station. Fig. 1.—Meadow seeded with redtop four years previously. Fig. 2.—Meadow seeded with mountain brome-grass.....	26
IV. Mountain meadow injured by erosion. Fig. 1.—General view of the meadow. Fig. 2.—The same meadow, showing early stages of erosion.....	26

THE IMPROVEMENT OF MOUNTAIN MEADOWS.

INTRODUCTION.

For a number of years the Bureau of Plant Industry has been carrying on investigations to determine what can be done to improve the stock ranges that have become badly depleted through overgrazing. In this work considerable attention has been paid to the grazing conditions in the mountains where the problem of summer pasturage is of very great importance in the production of beef and mutton.

A careful study of the conditions involved in these areas has led to two general conclusions: (1) On the mountain ridges, where the soil is usually very shallow and close to bed rock and is of a more or less sterile nature, very little can be accomplished in the way of range improvement. While reseeding may sometimes prove practicable, such improvement must ordinarily come through careful protection from overgrazing, in order that the original vegetation may be given a chance to restore itself. (2) In the mountain meadows and park-like areas, where there is ordinarily a good, rich, loamy soil, there are very great opportunities to increase the quantity of feed produced, and this increased production can very largely be secured by reseeding.

In connection with these investigations a range experiment station was established in the Wenache Mountains in Washington State in the fall of 1902, at which time seeding experiments were begun. These experiments were carried on cooperatively by the Washington Agricultural Experiment Station and the Bureau of Plant Industry. The following year other experiments were undertaken in the Sierra Nevada Mountains, California, the latter being under the direct charge of Mr. Charles H. Shinn, supervisor of the northern district of the Sierra National Forest. In 1906 further experiments were begun in the Warner Mountains in northeastern California, under the care of Forest Supervisor A. H. Hogue. In addition to these experiments numerous observations have been made on the results obtained by stockmen in various parts of the country in their efforts to improve the mountain grazing areas.

WENACHE MOUNTAIN STATION.

The Wenache Mountain station is located on the summit of the mountains, some 26 miles northeast of Ellensburg, and is at an altitude of a little more than 5,300 feet. It is highly typical of the entire mountain region along the eastern slopes of the Cascades in Washington. Practically all the different soil and climatic conditions found in this region are represented at the station or within a very few miles of it. The annual precipitation is probably not far from 20 inches and comes largely in the form of snow. The growing season does not much exceed four and a half months. The snow goes off some time between May 20 and June 1. The ground is usually frozen by the middle of October and snow falls to stay soon after November 1.

The station lies in the general course traveled over in the spring by the numerous migratory bands of sheep in going from the desert or lowland ranges to the high mountain pastures in the Cascades, and again in September on their return to the lowlands. As a result the region had been severely overgrazed for a number of years and the vegetation was in a badly depleted condition, much of it having been completely exterminated.

The station comprised a section of land that Babcock & Benson, the owners of a large sheep and cattle range, had inclosed with a good stock-proof fence as a holding pasture for their saddle and pack horses. As the problem of increasing the quantity of feed in the high mountain meadows was one of great importance to them, they donated the use of this section for experimental purposes. These men endeavored to keep out all stock from this area during those periods of the year when grazing might injure the grasses in the various plots, and in other ways did all they could to make the work successful.

SEEDING EXPERIMENTS.

The establishment of experimental plots at the Wenache Mountain station covered a period of two years. The first seeding was done in the latter half of October, 1902. The seed was sown so late in the season that there was no danger of its germinating that fall and yet in plenty of time for it to be on the ground before the snow, which began falling about two days after the seeding was finished. The melting snows in the spring tended to carry the seed into the ground and thus to insure germination.

Approximately 26 acres were seeded, plots of timothy, Kentucky bluegrass, redtop, mountain brome-grass (*Bromus marginatus*), and

white clover being started. In the spring of 1903 a little more than 30 acres were seeded. The same grasses were sown and a number of others, as follows: Orchard grass, brome-grass (*Bromus inermis*), cheat (*Bromus secalinus*), Italian rye-grass, perennial rye-grass, tall fescue, hard fescue (*Festuca duriuscula*), sheep's-fescue (*Festuca ovina*), Canada bluegrass, red clover, and alsike clover. The conditions at that time were highly favorable. The ground was covered with snow until June 1, 1903. On June 5 a warm wave swept over the eastern part of the State. This took the snow off very rapidly. The top of the ground dried out very quickly and it was necessary to cover the seed by means of a light harrow in order to insure germination. Later there were frequent showers which kept the ground moist and in excellent condition. By July 4 most of the plats were showing signs of germination. The majority of the grasses mentioned were again tested in the fall of 1903, a little more than 20 acres being seeded in the first half of October.

This completed the main part of the seeding, although in the fall of 1904 additional plots of tall fescue and orchard grass were started in order that the data obtained might be extended, while new plots of a few other grasses were established. The new plots were of slender wheat-grass (*Agropyron tenerum*), western wheat-grass (*A. occidentale*), tall oat-grass, and a native variety of sheep's-fescue (*Festuca ovina ingrata*).

In addition a number of plots were started on an area that had been plowed in the spring of 1904, the object being to determine how much value plowing has in the introduction of cultivated grasses in mountain areas.

MANAGEMENT OF STATION.

During the season of 1903 the proprietors of the land took a great deal of pains that all stock should be kept off the section until late in the fall. In the season of 1904 some 20 head of saddle horses were allowed to graze at the station from about the middle of June, the beginning of the growing season, until the first of November. Late in the autumn the station was also used for a few days at a time as a holding pasture for beef steers. Although the plots were very closely grazed in the late fall no harm was done them.

In June, 1905, the property changed hands, Coffin Brothers, who hold very extensive sheep interests in the State, purchasing it. These men very kindly offered to protect any part of the experiments that the Bureau of Plant Industry might desire. As all the seeding had been completed and the plots were well established, it was thought best to have them regularly grazed and learn how the different grasses

stood pasturing. Since that date the section has been grazed in about the same manner as formerly. No further attention has been paid to it by the Department of Agriculture than to make yearly observations as to the growth and pasturage qualities of the different grasses.

GRASSES TESTED.

Timothy.—Timothy was sown several times and under as many different conditions as possible, in order to give it a thorough test, 17 acres being seeded. Some of it was broadcasted on bare ground without further treatment, some was broadcasted and harrowed in, while a small quantity was sown on plowed ground. The quality of soil on which the seed was sown varied from a sterile side-hill soil, consisting largely of coarsely disintegrated basalt, to a good, rich, black loam. The rate of seeding was from 10 to 12 pounds to the acre.

On the half of the original plot started in the fall of 1902 where the seed was covered an excellent stand was secured. Had it been cut for hay it would have yielded in 1904 not less than $1\frac{1}{2}$ tons per acre. It has been grazed quite extensively, especially in the fall, ever since the first year and it stood this grazing well until the season of 1906, when in some parts of the plot it seemed to be dying out. In 1907 it had entirely recovered and was doing fully as well as ever. (See Pl. II, fig. 2.) The stand on the unharrowed half of the plot was at first only about a fifth as good as on the other. By a natural process of reseeding, the stand on the greater portion has gradually thickened, until at the present time it is fully as good as that on the first half. The timothy sown in the spring of 1904 without covering failed for the most part to germinate. Where it was harrowed in, a fair stand was secured, but one that was in no way comparable with that on the area seeded and harrowed the previous fall. Here, also, the timothy has reseeded itself until the stand is now as good as can be desired. In 1907 these three plots, aggregating some 7 acres, would have cut fully $1\frac{1}{2}$ tons of hay to the acre.

Half an acre of timothy was tested on the plowed ground. A good stand was secured, but it was no better than where the seed had been broadcasted and harrowed in.

Redtop.—A little more than 10 acres of redtop was sown in various parts of the section under practically the same conditions as the timothy. The rate of seeding was from 8 to 14 pounds to the acre. The first two years after seeding very little of this grass could be found, and except in a few scattered places the growth seemed to be unsatisfactory. By the summer of 1905 the stand had thickened greatly, there being on some areas a good sod where the first year after seeding there was apparently nothing to be seen. By

the year 1906 the stand on the greater part of the original plots was good. (See Pl. III, fig. 1.) The grass was then making an excellent growth and in many places was crowding out much of the original native vegetation. The redtop sown on the plowed area likewise gave an excellent stand and has done well. It is doubtful, however, whether the time saved in getting a stand of this grass would warrant the extra cost of plowing and preparing the land.

Tall fescue (Festuca elatior).—In the spring of 1903 an acre of tall fescue was seeded on good loamy soil where the original vegetation had been largely destroyed, its place being taken by yarrow and annual weeds. The rate of seeding was 24 pounds to the acre. This plot was duplicated the following fall. In the autumn of 1904 half an acre of the plowed ground was seeded to this grass. On half of each of the plots the seed was covered by harrowing. On those areas that were harrowed, a good stand has been secured and the grass has made an excellent growth. Tall fescue ranks next to timothy and redtop in value.

Orchard grass.—One and one-half acres of unprepared ground were seeded with orchard grass in the spring of 1903 at the rate of 24 pounds to the acre, the seed being harrowed in. In addition to this plot an area of one-sixth of an acre was seeded under similar conditions in the fall of 1904, while half an acre of plowed ground was seeded. The stand on the plowed area was quite satisfactory, but on the unprepared soil it was very poor. While it has been almost impossible to get a good stand, the orchard grass that came up has made a very satisfactory growth.

Brome-grass (Bromus inermis).—Two and one-half acres were seeded in the spring of 1903 on a rich, loamy soil, the rate of seeding being 22 pounds to the acre. One-half of the plot was harrowed. Where the seed was covered an excellent stand was secured. By the summer of 1905 the stand had thickened greatly, there was an excellent sod, and the grass was beginning to spread over some of the adjoining areas where there was a good soil. By the summer of 1906 it seemed to have disappeared in places in the main body of the plot, while along the edges it appeared to be getting much more abundant. In 1907 there was an excellent stand on nearly the entire plot.

Mountain brome-grass (Bromus marginatus).—About 6 acres were seeded to mountain brome-grass at a rate of 25 to 30 pounds to the acre. As this grass is a native of these mountains and naturally grows on the loose, gravelly soil areas, the plots were located on such areas. Where the soil was very poor a stand as satisfactory as could be expected was obtained. On a plot of one acre where the soil was somewhat coarsely disintegrated and where the seed had been harrowed in, a stand was secured that, if cut for hay, would have yielded not less than three-

fourths of a ton of hay per acre. (See Pl. III, fig. 2.) Considerable seed has been collected from this plot for experimental uses in other places. One-half acre of this grass was tested on plowed ground. The stand on the plowed area was no better than that secured on the original plot, where the seed was merely harrowed in. The stock on the section have never grazed this grass to any extent, as there were other grasses that are much more palatable growing near it.

Cheat (Bromus secalinus).—One acre was seeded to cheat in the spring of 1903 on an open park-like area where the soil was a good black loam and where mountain clover (*Trifolium longipes*) formed the prevailing vegetation. The rate of seeding was 30 pounds to the acre. The plot was duplicated in the fall. The grass seed germinated well where it was harrowed in, but the grass made a very poor growth and by the season of 1907 had entirely disappeared.

Kentucky bluegrass.—Eleven acres were seeded to Kentucky bluegrass at three different seasons, the rate of seeding varying from 14 to 18 pounds to the acre. Except for a small plot of about one-tenth acre on plowed ground this grass made almost no growth until the summer of 1906. At the time it was apparent that the grass had started in occasional small patches and was making a fair growth and furnishing a little pasturage. The indications were, however, that it would be of very little value.

Canada bluegrass.—A little more than 3 acres was sown to Canada bluegrass in the spring and fall of 1903, the rate of seeding varying from 20 to 25 pounds to the acre. The grass was seeded in an open park-like area where the soil was for the most part a rich black loam. One-half of each plot was harrowed. A fair stand was secured on the area that was harrowed, but until the season of 1906 it made a very poor showing. By that time the stand had greatly improved and the grass seemed to be making a much better growth than in previous years. This grass will, however, be of very little value in mountain meadows.

Perennial and Italian rye-grasses.—Some two or more acres were seeded to each of these grasses in the spring and fall of 1903. The conditions under which they were sown were typical of the majority of the plots at the station. In both cases the stand secured was poor. Both grasses made very little growth and soon ran out. They seem to be totally unadapted to this region.

Hard fescue (Festuca duriuscula).—About 2 acres were seeded to hard fescue in an open park in the spring and fall of 1903. In addition, a small plot of one-sixth acre of plowed ground was seeded. No traces of this grass could be found on the main plot. The stand secured on the plowed ground was excellent at first, but the grass has been gradually running out and by the summer of 1907 there was very little left.

Sheep's-fescue (Festuca ovina).—Some 3 or 4 acres were seeded to this grass during the spring and fall of 1903, 16 pounds of seed being used to the acre. A fair stand was secured, but the grass does not seem to have done very well. In fact, it has not made nearly the growth that is made by a variety of sheep's-fescue (*Festuca ovina ingrata*) native in these mountains.

Native sheep's-fescue (Festuca ovina ingrata).—One-fourth of an acre was seeded to this grass in the fall of 1904. This grass, locally known as bunch bluegrass, is a native of the Wenache Mountains and the seed was hand gathered. The rate of seeding was 16 pounds to the acre. Apparently the seed never germinated.

Slender wheat-grass (Agropyron tenerum).—In the autumn of 1904 a plot of one acre of this grass was sown in an area where all the original vegetation had been destroyed by overgrazing and trampling and where yarrow and weedy annuals had become quite abundant. The seed was harrowed in. In addition to this, a plot of about one-fourth of an acre of plowed ground was seeded. The grass on the acre plot started very slowly, and even in the summer of 1906 seemed to be a failure. By 1907 it had become much more abundant, and although the stand was still quite poor it looked promising. A very good stand was secured on the plowed area and the grass has made a satisfactory growth. In the summer of 1907 it was estimated that this plot would have yielded, if cut for hay, a crop of nearly three-fourths of a ton to the acre. The experiments indicate that this grass may have some value in reseeding some of the hillside areas of the mountain regions. They will, however, need to be continued two or three years more before definite conclusions can be reached.

Western wheat-grass (Agropyron occidentale).—Two small plots were seeded to this grass in the fall of 1904, one on plowed ground and one on an area with good soil where the original vegetation had been destroyed by overgrazing. The seed failed to germinate on the unprepared ground. A fair stand was secured on the plowed area, but it has not made a very thrifty growth. This grass will probably be of no value in the high mountains.

White clover.—About 10 acres were seeded to white clover under conditions identical with those found on the timothy and redbtop plots. The rate of seeding was from 8 to 12 pounds to the acre. Very few signs of germination of this seed have ever been found. In view of the fact that an excellent stand was secured from this same seed on the Cooke & Bull holding pasture two years later, the blame for this can not be placed on the quality of the seed. Various observations would indicate that the failure of this plant was probably due to lack of the proper kind of nitrogen-gathering bacteria in the soil.

Red clover.—A plot of $1\frac{1}{2}$ acres was seeded to red clover in the spring of 1903. Wherever the ground was not too wet the seed was harrowed in. A fair stand was secured on the drier part of the plot, but it became poorer each year until by the season of 1906 the clover had entirely disappeared. A small plot was tested on plowed ground with similar results.

Alsike clover.—Two acres were seeded to alsike clover in the spring and fall of 1903, the rate of sowing being 15 pounds to the acre. An excellent stand was secured from the spring sowing. Up to the season of 1905 it still remained alive, but had made very little growth and seemed to be inferior to the native clover. It had a yellow and unhealthy appearance and showed an entire lack of the root tubercles. By the year 1906 about three-fourths of the clover on this plot had disappeared. The remaining fourth of the plants had made a much larger growth and showed a much healthier condition than in previous years. In 1907 it had entirely disappeared. It is quite possible that if the seed had been inoculated this clover might have proved a success.

Vetches.—A number of vetches were experimented with, most of them being tested on plowed ground. They all failed to germinate.

EXPERIMENTS OF BABCOCK & BENSON.

In addition to the experiments already described, in the latter half of October, 1902, Babcock & Benson scattered 1,000 pounds of timothy seed, 400 pounds of orchard grass, 150 pounds of Kentucky bluegrass, and 100 pounds of white clover over the section and the park-like areas of their 14-section beef pasture adjoining it. At first there were very few signs of this seed having germinated, but by the year 1904 it was quite noticeable that a good deal of the timothy and some of the orchard grass had caught and that they were doing well. The timothy became more abundant each year until by the summer of 1907 it was pretty well distributed over the entire section. There are at the present time numerous spots a rod or more square where the stand is sufficiently thick to cut for hay.

The orchard grass has made a fair showing, but hardly sufficient to repay the cost of the seed. The Kentucky bluegrass and the white clover were complete failures.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE COOKE & BULL CATTLE RANGE.

The experiments on the Cooke & Bull cattle range were undertaken in order to test the adaptability at a lower altitude of some of the grasses that had been tried at the Wenache Mountain station. The place selected is in a holding pasture at an elevation of approximately 4,000 feet. It is located some 6 miles southeast of the

Wenache Mountain station. The sowing was done in small meadow-like areas at the head of a large canyon, where for the most part there was a good loamy soil, and in the bottom and along the sides of the canyon. The entire region in which this tract lies has been badly overgrazed for years by numerous bands of migratory sheep on their journeys to and from the mountain pastures. As a result, practically the whole area where the seed was sown had been denuded of all vegetation except shrubs and trees. The principal grasses experimented with were timothy, redtop, and white clover.

Timothy.—Timothy was sown on approximately two acres in a meadow-like area at the head of Perkins Creek canyon in the fall of 1904. The seed was broadcasted at the rate of about 8 pounds to the acre without further treatment. The following fall about 50 pounds of this seed were scattered along the bottom and sides of the two forks of Perkins Creek canyon, near the head. In spite of the fact that a large number of cattle have been kept on this pasture at various times and that it has been closely grazed, the timothy in the original plot has retained an excellent stand. If it could be protected, this plot would yield a good crop of hay. There is also a good stand of this grass along the bottom of the canyon and it promises to make an excellent growth.

Redtop.—A small plot was seeded to redtop near a spring just below the forks of the canyon in the autumn of 1904. The following fall (1905) about 50 pounds of this seed were scattered along both forks of the canyon, approximately the same area being used as for timothy.

By the spring of 1907 the redtop in the plot looked highly promising. Where the seed had been scattered along the canyon there was considerable of this grass to be seen. By the season of 1908 it will be sufficiently established, judging by the small plot, to produce a considerable quantity of feed.

White clover.—A considerable area in the main branch of the canyon was seeded to white clover in the fall of 1904 and again in 1905. There is an excellent stand, and in spite of its having been heavily grazed the clover has been making a good growth. It is somewhat questionable whether white clover produces enough forage under such conditions to make it of much value.

Other grasses.—In addition to the grasses mentioned, perennial rye-grass, Italian rye-grass, and Kentucky bluegrass were tested under similar conditions. These have yielded negative results.

RESULTS OF RESEEDING INVESTIGATIONS.

The experiments of the Bureau of Plant Industry show quite conclusively that the depleted mountain meadows (Pl. I, figs. 1 and 2) can be brought back to their original carrying capacity in two to

three years' time by reseeding with tame grasses. (See Pl. II, fig. 2, and Pl. III, figs. 1 and 2.). There are numerous instances, notably in the Cascade Mountains of Washington, where by the introduction of such grasses the meadows can be made to produce more forage than they ever did.

Out of the thirty or more grasses and forage plants tested, there are seven—tall fescue, orchard grass, brome-grass, mountain brome-grass, slender wheat-grass, timothy, and redtop—that have shown themselves to be of some importance in the restoration of mountain grazing areas. Timothy and redtop have proved to be of great value for this purpose. These two grasses can be introduced at a comparatively small cost, will furnish satisfactory yields, and will readily withstand moderately heavy grazing.

In addition to carrying on the experiments here described the writer has spent considerable time in studying the forage problems in the Cascade and Sierra Nevada Mountains and in making careful observations as to what has been accomplished by various stockmen and farmers in reseeding mountain meadows in that region. Several of these men have greatly increased the quantity of forage produced in such meadows by seeding them down to either timothy or redtop or a combination of the two. There are also a number of instances where these men are raising good crops of hay with which to supply the various lumber, mining, or tourist camps. Other investigations carried on by members of the staff of the Bureau of Plant Industry show that these grasses can readily be established throughout the Rocky Mountain system. In fact, they are quite widely scattered through the hauling of hay to the various mining and lumber camps and also through systematic effort on the part of some of the stockmen living in that region.^a The results obtained by these various stockmen show that there are numerous meadows throughout the entire western mountain region where timothy and redtop can be very successfully grown. They also prove that it is a paying proposition to seed down such meadows.

TIMOTHY.

Timothy will be of great value in restoring those areas where there is a fairly deep, rich soil that has been denuded of vegetation by overgrazing and trampling. Plate I, figures 1 and 2, shows portions of two different mountain meadows that are typical of just such results. This grass can also be used to advantage in those places where the mountain clovers naturally grow. (See Pl. IV, figs. 1 and 2.)

^a See Bulletin No. 117 of the Bureau of Plant Industry, U. S. Department of Agriculture, p. 11.

An example of what can be accomplished by the use of this grass is shown in Plate II. Figure 1 of this plate shows a part of a meadow near the Wenache Mountain station, lying just outside of the station fence. This area has been protected from overgrazing during the past five years, and as a result it is restored to a point where it will probably carry nearly as much stock as it originally did. Plate II, figure 2, shows a part of the same meadow lying just within the fence. This area was seeded to timothy in the autumn of 1902. The carrying capacity of the area seeded down is undoubtedly two or three times greater than that not seeded.

It is recommended that from 8 to 10 pounds of seed be used to the acre. This will give a stand that will be good enough to cut for hay. (See Pl. II, fig. 2.) If it were necessary to economize, a rate of 6 pounds per acre might prove sufficient, but the stand secured would, of course, not be as good as where a little higher rate of seeding was used. Although stands that have been entirely satisfactory have been obtained in places that have been subjected to continuous grazing, better results will usually be obtained if the seeded area can be protected during the first season or at least until the grass has become firmly rooted.

If the maximum rate of 10 pounds to the acre be used, the seed at $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound will cost 65 cents. The labor, provisions, and cost of hauling will bring the entire expense to about 95 cents an acre. The plots at the Wenache Mountain station have given a yield that if cut for hay would have averaged more than a ton to the acre. While the experiments have been carried on under practically typical range conditions it is possible that they have been a little better protected than they would have been in a large inclosure. Granting that these results are better than will be obtained under all circumstances, it is reasonable to believe that in an ordinary mountain meadow where there is a fairly deep and good soil a yield equivalent to at least half a ton of hay to the acre can be secured. Observations of the results obtained by practical stockmen will tend to confirm this conclusion. If the yield is equivalent to only half a ton it will still mean that the carrying capacity of this land has been increased so that an acre will carry a 1,200-pound steer a little more than 30 days longer than it previously did. If we value pasture at 25 cents a head each month this would, after the first year, give a return of more than 25 per cent on the cost of seeding.

In this connection an estimate has been made in order to show what can be accomplished by reseeding a pasture that is within some 5 or 6 miles of one of the above-mentioned experiment stations. This pasture has been carefully watched during the entire four years and

it is doubtful if its carrying capacity is as high as it was previous to fencing. The field contains approximately 1,100 acres and carries about 100 head of stock of all ages during the five summer months. It is a typical mountain pasture, the ridges consisting largely of "scab" land—land where there is very little soil—and the hillsides and bottoms of the canyons having a good, deep, rich soil. There are at least 300 acres of this pasture that could be seeded to timothy to good advantage. Using the same figures, the cost of seeding this area would be as follows:

3,000 pounds of seed at 6½ cents a pound.....	\$195
Labor at \$1.50 a day	45
Provisions.....	15
Cost of hauling seed, provisions, etc.....	20
Total	275

If we estimate, as above, that a stand sufficient to yield half a ton of hay to the acre is secured, the pasture by the second summer after seeding will be in position to support 60 additional head of cattle, or nearly two-thirds more than at present, through the grazing season of five months.

Considering pasturage worth 25 cents per month per head, this pasture will be in a position to yield a return of more than 25 per cent a year on the expense of seeding it down.

As a result of these investigations two stockmen who have extensive holdings in the mountain grazing areas have sown timothy in their mountain meadows. These men are much pleased with the results obtained and consider that the grazing capacity of their meadows has been sufficiently increased to make reseeding a very paying investment.

REDTOP.

Redtop will also be of value in the improvement of mountain meadows. It can be used to advantage under the conditions shown in Plate I, figures 1 and 2, but will be most useful in reseeding those places that are too wet for timothy. It will do well on those areas where timothy grows successfully, and in the Sierra Nevada Mountains of California will apparently make a very good growth where it is a little too dry for timothy.

The most serious objection to this grass is that it is very slow in getting started, especially in the high altitudes. (See Pl. III, fig. 1.) It will be necessary to wait at least three years before redtop will make much of a showing. Once established it is there to stay. These investigations have shown that not only will this grass remain permanently, but it will gradually become thicker in that part of the

meadow in which it is sown and will in time spread through the meadow, eventually crowding out much of the native vegetation.

From 10 to 15 pounds of seed of the very best quality should be used to the acre. If the seed is full of chaff this rate should be doubled.

Although no experiments in mixing this grass with timothy have been made, it is reasonable to believe that such a mixture might prove valuable. The timothy would be available for pasturage the second summer after seeding and for a number of years thereafter. The redtop would not be well enough established to yield any returns before the third or fourth year. Once started it would continue to become more abundant and would remain permanently even though the timothy might run out.

TALL FESCUE.

Were it not for the fact that the seed of this grass is very expensive and that timothy can be established at a much less cost, tall fescue would in all probability play an important part in range improvement. It gives good yields, stands grazing well, and is a favorite with stock, as they prefer it to either timothy or redtop. Of all the grasses tried at the Wenache Mountain station it has proved third best. This grass should be sown at the rate of 25 pounds to the acre, and if not too expensive it would be advantageous to harrow it in.

ORCHARD GRASS.

The investigations made in California indicate that orchard grass can probably be used to advantage in improving the mountain grazing areas of that State. In Washington this grass has made a very good growth, but it has been very difficult to get a good stand of it.

Orchard grass will be of most value on those areas that are a little too dry for the successful growth of timothy, such as the outside edges of mountain meadows. (See Pl. IV, fig. 1.) As there seems to be considerable difficulty in getting a stand, a heavy rate of seeding, not less than 25 pounds to the acre, should be used. If possible, the seed should be harrowed in.

BROME-GRASS.

Like tall fescue, brome-grass has shown itself worthy of consideration in reseeding mountain meadows. It has given a good stand and made an excellent growth. Of all the grasses tested it has been the favorite with the stock pastured on the section, and as a consequence has at times been very heavily grazed. It has readily with-

stood the occasional overgrazings and the stand has improved each year.

At the present price of the seed (about 11 cents a pound) it is doubtful from a range standpoint whether it can be used profitably. Not only is the seed expensive, but good results require that it be harrowed in. Although its cost makes it prohibitive for use alone, it might be a good plan to sow a little of the seed along with timothy. Once established, the brome-grass would have a tendency to thicken and would probably be permanent.

MOUNTAIN BROME-GRASS.

This grass is a native of the mountains of the Western States. It formerly grew quite abundantly on the gravelly hillside areas of these mountains, but has been largely exterminated through overpasturing. The experiments at the Wenache Mountain station show that it can easily be reseeded and that an excellent stand can be secured. Investigations made in the Warner Mountains of California confirm this conclusion. As the seed is large and heavy it should be sown at the rate of 25 pounds to the acre. While mountain brome-grass can be reintroduced by merely reseeding the ground, the best results will be obtained if the seed is harrowed in. Next to timothy this grass has made the best growth of any of those included in the experiments here recorded. From the standpoint of yield and as a grass to cover the denuded side-hill areas, it will prove entirely satisfactory. (See Pl. III, fig. 2.) Its chief drawback lies in the fact that stock will not eat mountain brome-grass readily when they can find more palatable feed. The plot at the Wenache Mountain station has been grazed but very little. It has, however, been located near others bearing grasses that are naturally favorites with stock. In contrast to this it is noticeable that whenever this grass occurs on the open range or in places where there is not an overabundance of feed, it is readily eaten.

SLENDER WHEAT-GRASS.

As the experiments tried at the Wenache Mountain station with slender wheat-grass were not begun in the fall of 1904, the plots are not old enough to draw definite conclusions. There are, however, strong indications that this grass will prove of considerable value in reseeding gravelly hillside areas.

Extensive experiments are now being carried on with this grass in the Warner Mountains of California to determine the practicability of using it in the restoration of the overgrazed gravelly areas of the mountain sides at high altitudes. These experiments are under the direct charge of Mr. A. H. Hogue, supervisor of the Warner Moun-

tain National Forest. If they succeed this grass will be of great value in the improvement of such areas, as it is greatly superior to mountain brome-grass, being much more palatable to stock and also more nutritious.

CLOVERS.

At the present time the clovers can not be recommended in improving mountain meadows. In all the experiments at the Wenache Mountain station they have been complete failures. During the first two years of its existence the alsike clover gave an excellent stand. It made a very poor growth, however, and finally died out.

The white clover tried at the Wenache Mountain station both in the plots and by Babcock & Benson proved a failure. On the Cooke & Bull range, which is from 1,000 to 1,500 feet lower, the very same seed has given a fairly good stand, but it has not as yet made a very large growth.

METHODS OF RESEEDING.

In this work the writer has obtained the best results by using a hand seeder such as is commonly used in seeding alfalfa. With such a machine a man can easily sow from 10 to 12 acres a day. This acreage can be greatly increased, especially in scattered areas, if a saddle horse is used and the sowing is done on horseback.

If the seeding is done in wet meadows, where there is more or less standing water, it will probably be best to wait until late spring or early summer when the ground and soil water are so warm that the seed will germinate. The grass will then become sufficiently established to withstand the coming winter. In sowing timothy and redtop, except on very wet areas, the best results will be obtained if the ground is seeded late in the fall just before the snow falls. At that time there will be no danger of the seed sprouting and being killed by cold weather. The following spring the melting snows will tend to carry the seed below the loose, mulchy soil to the moist compact soil beneath. Continued observation has shown that this loose, mulchy soil becomes too dry on top for the germination of seed almost as soon as the snow is gone and within a very few hours after a shower. It is therefore essential that the seed be gotten under the mulch by some such means as the melting of snow, a heavy shower, or harrowing. These grasses can be seeded in the spring, but unless there are very favorable rains it will be necessary that the seed be harrowed in, if the work is to be successful. Where the seed is rather large, as is the case with brome-grass, orchard grass, and slender wheat-grass, it is probable that the extra stand secured will justify the extra cost of harrowing.

Plowing and a thorough preparation of the soil are advocated by some. If the cost of getting the plow into the high mountains and of operating it there be taken into consideration, this method will ordinarily be found impracticable. The results obtained at the Wenache Mountain station show that, with the exception of slender wheat-grass and orchard grass, the stands secured on plowed ground have been very little, if any, better than where the seed was merely harrowed in. Not only is plowing unnecessary, but under some circumstances it would be positively injurious. There are numerous mountain meadows which are practically surrounded by hills that have been denuded of vegetation by overgrazing. To plow such a meadow would be a very dangerous proceeding. The instant the soil is loosened the first rush of water from these hills after a heavy rain or a spring freshet will carry all the soil away and completely ruin the meadow.

OTHER IMPROVEMENTS.

While reseeding is the main factor in the improvement of mountain meadows there are three other means that under some circumstances can be used to advantage and will be of considerable importance in making the reseeding pay. These are (1) the drainage of meadows that are too wet, (2) the filling in of old washouts, and (3) irrigation.

DRAINAGE.

Many mountain meadows, especially in high altitudes, are too wet for the growth of suitable forage. The prevailing vegetation consists of sedges, rushes, and other water-loving plants. The quality of this feed is very poor. If these meadows can be properly drained the native vegetation growing on the drier areas, which usually has a much higher forage value, will gradually work into the drained areas and supplant the original vegetation. This will bring about a very great improvement in the quality of feed produced. After the meadows have been drained it is recommended that they be seeded down to either timothy or redtop, especially if they have been subjected to overgrazing in the past. The combined drainage and seeding will result in greatly increasing the carrying capacity of the meadows. Not only will there be more forage, but it will be of much better quality.

This method of improvement must be used with a great deal of care, for if the draining is not properly done it may result in the destruction of the meadow. Pains should be taken to see that the drains are not cut too deep and that there is no danger from future washouts. If such a meadow is surrounded by steep hills that have been denuded of vegetation so that there is danger of a sudden rush of water, it will be much safer to leave it undrained.

FILLING IN WASHOUTS.

A large number of mountain meadows are not producing nearly the quantity of feed they formerly did. Ordinarily this is because the meadows and the surrounding hills have been too severely overgrazed in years gone by. As a result the water from the melting snows or from rains goes out with a rush and the little creeks that run through these meadows have cut deep channels. Plate IV, figure 2, shows such a cut in the process of formation. These cuts serve as drains, but being too deep draw off the ground water too far beneath the roots of the vegetation. This results in the death of the vegetation or in greatly lowering its rate of growth. It also enables many drought-resistant weeds that are of little forage value to get a foothold and crowd out the original vegetation.

Some of these meadows could be restored to their former carrying capacity by throwing dead logs, brush, and other rubbish into the creeks at intervals. This rubbish will tend to catch the silt that washes down, and thus gradually fill up the cuts that have been formed. This has been very successfully done in the mountains of California in one or two instances that have come under the writer's notice.

IRRIGATION.

There are a number of mountain meadows where the quantity of forage produced (Pl. IV, fig. 1) can be greatly increased if the water from the streams running through them can be diverted and allowed to spread over the land. A number of instances have been noticed where stockmen have plowed a furrow along the outer and higher edges of a meadow or along the side hill just above it and have diverted the water from the creeks to these furrows with excellent results. The increase in the forage produced where the water from these furrows has been allowed to seep through the ground has in some instances been quite striking. It would ordinarily require only a small outlay of work to make these furrows. As it is usually necessary to keep a herder or fence rider to look after the stock, it will take very little extra time on his part to see that the water is properly diverted to such furrows.

CONCLUSIONS.

(1) The experiments and investigations carried on during the past five years by the Bureau of Plant Industry show that the carrying capacity of mountain meadows can be greatly increased by reseeding with tame grasses.

(2) The grasses best adapted to this purpose are timothy and red-top. This is because they can be sown the most economically and will give the best returns.

(3) The introduction of timothy into a devastated mountain meadow will mean that the carrying capacity of such a meadow will be increased so that an acre will carry a 1,200-pound steer at least one month longer than it did previously. Ordinarily it will carry him two months longer.

(4) Timothy can be introduced at a cost of 95 cents per acre. If pasturage is worth 25 cents a month for each head of stock, it is reasonable to expect a return of more than 25 per cent on the cost of reseeding.

(5) Redtop will be of most value in reseeding those places that are too wet for timothy.

(6) A mixture of timothy and redtop will probably prove valuable. Timothy will give returns quickly, while redtop is more permanent and has a tendency to spread.

(7) Brome-grass, tall fescue, and orchard grass have proved to be well adapted to mountain-meadow conditions, but the cost of their introduction will prohibit their extensive use.

(8) Mountain brome-grass will readily recover the gravelly hillside areas that have been denuded by overgrazing. Where there is an abundance of succulent feed this grass is not readily grazed by stock.

(9) Slender wheat-grass may eventually prove of more value on the mountain slopes. Experiments to determine this point have not been continued sufficiently long to permit definite conclusions to be drawn.

(10) Timothy and redtop should be sown in the late autumn in order to save the expense of harrowing.

(11) Where the seed is large, as in the case of brome-grass, mountain brome-grass, etc., harrowing is strongly recommended.

(12) Plowing is ordinarily impracticable and sometimes positively injurious.

(13) Drainage, partial irrigation, and the filling in of old washouts will sometimes aid in the improvement of native meadows.

PLATES.

127

25

DESCRIPTION OF PLATES.

PLATE I. Mountain meadows in the Warner Mountains, California, where timothy can be sown to excellent advantage. Fig. 1.—A typical moist mountain meadow where all vegetation has been destroyed and a species of *Veratrum* has taken its place. This is an ideal place for seeding with timothy and redtop. Fig. 2.—The edge of a badly overgrazed mountain meadow where timothy should be sown. Reseeding would greatly increase the carrying capacity of this meadow.

PLATE II. Results of reseeding. Fig. 1.—A portion of a mountain meadow allowed to restore itself through protection from overgrazing. Fig. 2.—A portion of the same meadow (just inside fence) where timothy was sown in 1902. It has been closely grazed each fall since.

PLATE III. Plots at the Wenache Mountain station. Fig. 1.—Meadow seeded with redtop four years previously. The dark streaks in the picture are the young redtop heads. Fig. 2.—Meadow seeded with mountain brome-grass (*Bromus marginatus*). The boundary line of the plot is plainly shown in the foreground.

PLATE IV. Mountain meadow where the carrying capacity has been lowered by a stream cutting a deep channel, thus draining the meadow too much. Fig. 1.—General view of the meadow. Fig. 2.—The same meadow illustrated in figure 1, showing the early stages of erosion.



FIG. 1.—A TYPICAL MOIST MOUNTAIN MEADOW WHERE THE ORIGINAL VEGETATION HAS BEEN DESTROYED.



FIG. 2.—THE EDGE OF AN OVERGRAZED MEADOW WHERE TIMOTHY AND REDTOP SHOULD BE SOWN.

MOUNTAIN MEADOWS THAT SHOULD BE RESEED.



FIG. 1.—A PORTION OF A MOUNTAIN MEADOW RESTORED THROUGH PROTECTION.



FIG. 2.—A PORTION OF THE SAME MEADOW SEEDIED TO TIMOTHY.

RESULTS OF RESEEDING.



FIG. 1.—MEADOW SEEDED WITH REDTOP FOUR YEARS PREVIOUSLY.



FIG. 2.—MEADOW SEEDED WITH MOUNTAIN BROME-GRASS.
PLOTS AT THE WENACHE MOUNTAIN STATION.



FIG. 1.—GENERAL VIEW OF THE MEADOW.



FIG. 2.—THE SAME MEADOW, SHOWING EARLY STAGES OF EROSION.

MOUNTAIN MEADOW INJURED BY EROSION.

INDEX.

	Page
Agropyron occidentale, growing, test at Wenache Mountain station.....	13
tenerum. See Wheat-grass, slender.	
Alsiike clover. See Clover, alsike.	
Babcock & Benson, donation of section for Wenache station.....	8
experiments.....	14
Beef, relation of summer pasturage.....	7
Bluegrass, bunch (local name), growing, test at Wenache station.....	13
Canada, growing, test at Wenache station	12
Kentucky, growing, test at Wenache station	12
Brome-grass and timothy, mixture suggested	20
growing, test at Wenache station.....	11
mountain, growing, test at Wenache station.....	11-12
objection.....	20
value for depleted meadows.....	20
preference by stock.....	19
Bromus inermis. See Brome-grass.	
marginatus. See Brome-grass, mountain.	
secalinus, growing, test at Wenache Mountain station	12
Canada bluegrass, growing, test at Wenache Mountain station	12
Carrying capacity, mountain meadows, increase by use of timothy.....	24
Cascade Mountains, eastern slope, Washington, climate.....	8
Cheat, growing, test at Wenache station.....	12
Clover, alsike, growing, test at Wenache station.....	14
red, growing, test at Wenache station.....	14
white, growing, test at Wenache station.....	13
on Cooke & Bull cattle range.....	15*
Clovers, experiments at Wenache Mountain station.....	21-22
Coffin Brothers, acquisition of Wenache station section.....	9
Conclusions drawn from experiments.....	23-24
Cooke & Bull cattle range, experiments.....	14-15
Drainage, value in wet meadows.....	22
Drains, mountain meadows, danger from washouts.....	22
Dry meadows, California, value of redtop.....	18
Experiment station, range, Wenache Mountain, establishment.....	7
location.....	8
stations, range, establishment.....	7
Fescue, hard, growing, test at Wenache station.....	12
sheep's, growing, test at Wenache station.....	13
native, growing, test at Wenache station	13
tall, amount per acre.....	19
growing, test at Wenache station.....	11
results of reseeded investigations.....	19
value.....	11
for mountain meadows.....	19
Festuca duriuscula, growing, test at Wenache Mountain station	12
elator. See Fescue, tall.	
ovina. See Fescue, sheep's.	
ingrata. See Fescue, sheep's, native.	
Forage, increase in mountain meadows, work of stockmen.....	16

	Page.
Forage, yield from reseeded pastures.....	18
Germination of seeds, snow as factor.....	8
Grasses, experiments on Cooke & Bull cattle range.....	14-15
growing, experiments by Babcock & Benson	14
in Cascades, eastern slope, Washington.....	10-14
test on Cooke & Bull cattle range.....	15
reseeding depleted meadows, varieties suitable.....	16
tame, use in reclaiming depleted mountain meadows, results of experi- ments.....	23-24
value for depleted meadows, results of experiments.....	23
tested, Wenache station.....	10-14
varieties used in Wenache Mountain seeding experiments.....	9
Grazing conditions, mountains, Washington and California, investigations, results.....	7
Wenache station, effect on grass plots.....	9
Growing season, Cascades, eastern slope, Washington.....	8
Hard fescue, growing, test at Wenache Mountain station.....	12
Harrowing in grass seed, value.....	19-20
timothy seed, compared with sowing on plowed ground and unhar- rowed ground.....	10
Hay, hauling to lumber camps, relation to increase of forage.....	16
yield from reseeded pastures.....	18
of meadow seeded to timothy.....	17
Hogue, A. H., experiments with slender wheat-grass.....	20-21
supervision of range investigations in Warner Mountains, Cali- fornia.....	7
Hillsides, gravelly, value of mountain brome-grass.....	20
slender wheat-grass.....	20
Introduction to bulletin.....	7
Irrigation, mountain meadows, value and management.....	23
Kentucky bluegrass. <i>See</i> Bluegrass.	
Mountain brome-grass. <i>See</i> Brome-grass, mountain.	
Mutton, relation of summer pasturage.....	7
Orchard grass, growing, test at Wenache station.....	11
use in California mountains.....	19
Overgrazing, effect on ranges of Cascades.....	8
Pasturage, summer, mountain ranges, importance.....	7
Plates, description.....	26
Plowing, danger to mountain meadows.....	22
for reseeding meadows, experiments at Wenache Mountain station.....	22
Range, Cooke & Bull cattle range, experiments in growing grasses.....	14-15
experiment station, Wenache Mountain, Washington, location.....	8
stations, establishment.....	7
Wenache Mountain, condition.....	8
Ranges, mountain, investigations by Bureau of Plant Industry, object.....	7
stock, mountain ridges, overgrazing, recovery.....	7
Red clover. <i>See</i> Clover, red.	
Redtop, adaptability to mountain meadows, results of experiments.....	23-24
and timothy, mixture recommended.....	19
growing, test at Wenache station.....	10-11
on Cooke & Bull cattle range.....	15
habits of growth, value for permanent meadows.....	18
reseeding meadows, value on wet meadows, etc.....	18-19

	Page.
Reseeding, cost for 300-acre pasture.....	18
depleted mountain meadows, results of investigations.....	15-21
methods.....	22
Ridges, improvement of range, method.....	7
Rye-grass, Italian, growing, test at Wenache station.....	12
perennial, growing, test at Wenache station.....	12
Seed, brome-grass, harrowing in a necessity.....	20
price.....	20
orchard grass, amount to acre.....	19
redtop, amount to acre.....	18
tall fescue, amount to acre.....	19
timothy, amount to acre.....	17
Seeder, hand, value in reseeding meadows.....	21
Seeding, condition and results of various grasses, Wenache Mountain station	10-14
of soil, experiments at Wenache Mountain station	10-14
experiments, Wenache Mountain ranges, cooperation of Wenache sta- tion with Washington station and Bureau of Plant Industry.....	7 8-9
results for various grasses, Wenache Mountain station	10-14
sowing on horseback, advantages	21
time, relation to snow	8
Seeds, time to sow.....	21
Sheep's-fescue, growing, test at Wenache station.....	13
native, growing, test at Wenache station.....	13
Shinn, Charles H., supervision of range investigation in Sierra Nevada Moun- tains, California	7 7
Sierra Nevada Mountains, range experiments, supervision.....	7
Snow, Cascades, eastern slope, Washington.....	8
factor in germination of grass seed.....	8, 21
Stock ranges, improvement of summer pasturage, importance.....	7
Stockmen, range improvement, efforts.....	7
Summary of experiments, Wenache Mountain station	9-14
Tall fescue. <i>See</i> Fescue, tall.	
Timothy, adaptability to mountain meadows, results of experiments.....	23-24
and redtop, mixture recommended	19
growing, test at Wenache station	10
on Cooke & Bull cattle range.....	15
reseeding meadows, cost, results, etc.....	15-18
use in reseeding mountain meadows, cost per acre, returns, etc.....	24
Vetches, growing, test at Wenache station.....	14
Warner Mountains, range experiments, supervision	7
Washouts, cause of death of vegetation.....	22
filling, value in reclaiming mountain meadows.....	23
Wenache station, donation by Babcock & Benson, condition, etc.....	8
management.....	9-14
Wet meadows, methods of improvement.....	22
seeding method.....	21
value of redtop.....	18
Wheat-grass, slender, experiments in Warner Mountains of California.....	20-21
growing, test at Wenache station.....	13
value for gravelly hillsides.....	20
western, growing, test at Wenache station.....	13
White clover. <i>See</i> Clover, white.	

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BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY—BULLETIN NO. 128.

B. T. GALLOWAY, *Chief of Bureau.*

EGYPTIAN COTTON IN THE SOUTH- WESTERN UNITED STATES.

BY

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY,
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF,
Washington, D. C., March 25, 1908.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith and to recommend for publication as Bulletin No. 128 of the series of this Bureau the accompanying manuscript, entitled "Egyptian Cotton in the South-western United States," by Thomas H. Kearney, Physiologist in Charge of Alkali and Drought Resistant Plant Breeding Investigations, and William A. Peterson, Farm Superintendent, Western Agricultural Extension Investigations.

This bulletin calls attention to the fact that we now import from Egypt an average of sixty million pounds of cotton annually, notwithstanding the fact that this country far surpasses all others in its exports of this staple. The Bureau of Plant Industry has experimented for several years past with a view to establishing Egyptian cotton culture in some portion of the United States. In the main cotton belt the results on the whole have not been encouraging, but in the irrigated districts of the extreme Southwest, notably in southern Arizona and southeastern California, much progress has been made in acclimatizing two of the leading varieties and improving them by selection.

The climatic and soil conditions of the Colorado River region are admirably adapted to cotton growing and considerable interest in this crop has recently been manifested there. Owing, however, to the distance from manufacturing centers and the high price of labor which prevails, it is believed that a profitable cotton industry can be developed in that region only by associating it with some special type of cotton bringing a higher price than Middling Upland and not grown elsewhere in the United States. Egyptian cotton fully meets these requirements.

Respectfully,

B. T. GALLOWAY,
Chief of Bureau.

HON. JAMES WILSON,
Secretary of Agriculture.

CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction	7
Cotton culture in Egypt.....	10
Physical characteristics of the country	11
Climate.....	11
Soils.....	14
Alkali resistance of the cotton plant	15
Varieties grown	16
Ashmuni	17
Mit Affi.....	17
Jannovitch	17
Abbasi	18
Nubari	18
Quality and grades of Egyptian cotton.....	18
Cultural methods.....	19
Preparation of the land	19
Planting	21
Irrigating	21
Cultivating	22
Picking.....	23
Ginning and baling.....	24
Yields and markets.....	24
Uses of Egyptian cotton by American manufacturers.....	26
Egyptian cotton culture in the United States	28
Areas adapted to this type of cotton	28
Climate.....	29
Soils.....	31
Water supply	32
Experiments in the South Atlantic and Gulf States	33
Preliminary experiments in the Southwest.....	34
Reports of experts on the fiber produced in 1902.....	34
Results of acclimatization and selection in the Southwest.....	37
Characters of the plants.....	38
Yield tests.....	39
Quality of the fiber.....	40
Strength tests	41
Comparison of the fiber from different pickings	43
Opinions of experts on the fiber produced in 1907.....	44
Types produced	45
Irrigation experiments.....	45

Egyptian cotton culture in the United States—Continued.		Page
Suggestions as to cultural methods.....		48
Irrigation.....		48
Preparation of the land.....		50
Planting.....		50
Cultivating.....		53
Picking.....		53
Machinery required.....		54
Rotations.....		56
Labor conditions.....		57
Markets and transportation.....		58
Diseases and insect enemies.....		58
Diseases.....		58
The boll weevil.....		59
Bermuda grass in relation to cotton culture.....		59
Summary.....		60
Description of plates.....		64
Index.....		65

ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATES.

	Page.
PLATE I. Experimental cotton field at Yuma, Ariz., in 1907.....	Frontispiece.
II. Fig. 1.—Egyptian cotton plants at Yuma, Ariz., in 1903, showing rank growth and relative sterility. Fig. 2.—Egyptian cotton plants at Yuma in 1907, showing productiveness and satisfactory opening of bolls.....	64
III. Fig. 1.—Typical Mit Afifi cotton plant grown at Yuma, Ariz., in 1907. Fig. 2.—Another typical Mit Afifi cotton plant grown at Yuma in 1907.....	64
IV. Open and unopened bolls of Mit Afifi cotton grown at Yuma, Ariz., in 1907.....	64
V. Mit Afifi seed cotton, showing improvement by selection.....	64

TEXT FIGURES.

FIG. 1. Map of Arizona and southern California, showing the location of the Salt River, Yuma, and Imperial valleys.....	28
2. Finished Egyptian cotton bales at a ginnery at Kafr ez Zayat, Egypt..	55

EGYPTIAN COTTON IN THE SOUTHWESTERN UNITED STATES.

INTRODUCTION.

Although the United States is by far the greatest cotton-producing country in the world, a large quantity of this staple is every year imported from Egypt. During the past ten years the direct imports from Egypt have averaged nearly fifty-four million pounds, besides an average annual importation from Great Britain of eight and one-half million pounds, the great bulk of which was undoubtedly produced in Egypt. In 1907 the value of the direct imports from Egypt exceeded all records, amounting to over \$16,000,000. The average price of this cotton on the Boston market in 1907 was 21.9 cents per pound.

Several varieties of cotton are grown in Egypt, but all of them are of one well-marked type that resembles in many respects the American Sea Island. They are characterized by long and very strong fiber, smooth seeds, small, pointed, three-locked bolls, and yellow flowers. Some of them, notably the Abbasi and Jannovitch varieties, are second only to Sea Island cottons in the length, fineness, and silkiness of their fiber. The first is pure white, the latter of a very light cream color. The most extensively grown variety, Mit Afifi, has a soft, rather crinkly fiber of a characteristic light brown color that renders it especially useful for certain classes of cotton goods in which the natural color of the fiber is retained. The great strength and high degree of twist allow the production of a very strong yarn. The best Egyptian cottons bring a price second only to that paid for the highest grades of Sea Island, being used solely in the manufacture of the finest goods. They are especially suitable for mercerizing, taking this process better than either Sea Island or Upland cottons, and are largely used for mixing with silk and for the manufacture of cloths in which a high finish and luster are required.

In view of the considerable value of this import, the Department of Agriculture is endeavoring to develop Egyptian cotton culture in the United States in order to supply our own market with a home-grown product. The Office of Seed and Plant Introduction has several times imported seed of the standard Egyptian varieties and these have been tested at many localities throughout the main cotton belt from South Carolina to Texas, as well as in extreme western Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and southeastern California.

In the humid part of the United States, where cotton is already the principal crop, the Egyptian types have given only indifferent success, although the quality of the fiber produced has in many cases been excellent. The chief drawback has been their late ripening, and hence the failure to obtain full yields.

Success in this effort can be looked for in the Southwest, and especially in the Colorado River region, where the very long, hot, almost rainless summers, deep alluvial soils, and irrigated agriculture approximate the conditions obtaining in Egypt. The length of the season in southern Arizona and southeastern California permits many more bolls to ripen on plants of the Egyptian varieties and hence larger yields than anywhere in the cotton belt proper.

That success could be expected in the Southwest had already been indicated by the results obtained at Phoenix, Ariz., in 1900 and 1901 by the Territorial Experiment Station. In 1902 the Bureau of Plant Industry commenced experiments with Egyptian varieties at Barstow, Tex., and Carlsbad, N. Mex. (both localities in the Pecos Valley), and at Yuma, Ariz., and Calexico, Cal., the latter two localities being in the Colorado River region. For various reasons the work was finally concentrated at Yuma.

During the first three years the results were far from encouraging, so far at least as the Mit Affi variety is concerned. The plants made an exceedingly rank growth, were relatively sterile, the bolls opened very late and imperfectly, and the fiber was relatively short and coarse. After five years of acclimatization and selection, however, there has been a very great improvement in all these respects. In 1907 Mit Affi cotton yielded at Yuma at the rate of 990 pounds of fiber to the acre, a yield practically equal to that of the most productive Upland variety that was grown in the same field. The fiber averaged nearly $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, was exceedingly strong, and possessed the delicate brown color that is so desirable in this type. The bolls, although much smaller than those of Upland varieties, opened perfectly. It was found that the cost of picking was only about one and one-half times as much for Egyptian cotton as for such large-bolled Upland varieties as Triumph and Rogers Big Boll.

In view of these results, the possibility of establishing Egyptian cotton culture on a commercial scale in the irrigated valleys of the Southwest deserves serious consideration. The remoteness from existing markets and the scarcity and cost of labor make it very doubtful whether short-staple Upland varieties can be profitably grown in that part of the country unless the unusually high prices of the last few years are maintained. On the other hand, the more valuable long-staple Upland or "Peeler" varieties have not yet yielded at Yuma as heavily as the acclimatized Egyptians. The best prospect of building up a permanently remunerative cotton industry in

the Southwest undoubtedly lies in identifying that region with the production of a special type of high-grade cotton, one that is grown in no other part of the United States and is demanded by a special market willing to pay high prices for a first-class product. All these requirements are met by Egyptian cotton and by no other.

The climatic conditions of the Colorado River region in southern Arizona and southeastern California are unrivaled from the standpoint of cotton growing. At least 600,000 acres of excellent land are or soon will be under ditch in the Imperial, Yuma, Salt, and Gila valleys. One-fifth of this acreage could produce the average amount of Egyptian cotton that is annually imported into the United States. The soils are for the most part very fertile and an abundant and permanent supply of water for irrigation is at hand. It has been demonstrated that yields of one to two bales per acre are possible in this region and the fiber produced has been pronounced by experts as equal to the better grades imported from Egypt.

Two principal difficulties remain to be overcome: Labor and marketing. Since cotton must be picked by hand, the first is a serious difficulty in a region where labor is so scarce and high priced. The problem of transportation also remains to be solved. But, in view of the high price brought by this cotton, there is good reason to believe that it will be found feasible to ship it by rail to Pacific coast or even to Gulf ports, and thence by water to the New England cities where it is manufactured. So long as these problems remain unsolved, however, farmers who are contemplating growing cotton in the Southwest are cautioned to look carefully into the possibilities of picking and marketing their crop before planting any considerable acreage.

Since there is every indication that Egyptian varieties offer the best prospect of building up a profitable and lasting cotton industry in the irrigated valleys of the Southwest, planters in that region are urged to consider the question carefully before committing themselves to growing Upland varieties. The introduction of the latter would seriously interfere with keeping the Egyptian varieties up to the high standard which has been attained, since a certain amount of crossing would inevitably take place. Moreover, Indians and other pickers, should they become accustomed to the large-bolled Upland varieties, would be more reluctant to pick the small Egyptian bolls than if they were familiar only with the latter. Finally, there would be danger of introducing with the seed of Upland varieties some of the diseases and insect enemies that ravage this crop in the Southern States, but have not yet appeared in the isolated valleys of the Southwest.

The introduction of the cotton boll weevil would be ruinous to the industry at the very outset. Immunity from this destructive insect can be insured only by a rigorous inspection of all cotton seed intro-

duced from the weevil-infested district, which now includes practically the whole of Texas, as well as parts of Louisiana, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Oklahoma. The safest plan would be to admit no seed from other cotton-growing districts that has not been thoroughly fumigated.^a

Those who contemplate experimenting with Egyptian varieties of cotton should avoid the use of directly imported seed, which is likely to give disappointing results during the first two or three years it is grown in the United States and hence to prejudice the grower against this type of cotton. Thoroughly acclimatized seed is under all circumstances to be preferred.

Since cotton growing under irrigation in an arid climate is still in the experimental stage in the United States, it has been deemed advisable to begin this paper with a brief description of the physical conditions prevailing, the varieties grown, and the cultural methods used in Egypt, where the crop is produced under irrigation with great success on a large scale. The portion of the United States that most resembles Egypt in its physical characteristics will then be taken up and the principal features of its climate, soils, and water supply will be pointed out. The results so far obtained in adapting Egyptian cottons to this area by acclimatization and breeding will next be discussed. Experiments in methods of growing the crop under irrigation are described and such recommendations as to cultural practices are given as the information now at hand will warrant.

COTTON CULTURE IN EGYPT.^b

No country in the world is better adapted than Egypt to growing cotton. The long, hot, rainless summers, deep alluvial soils, plentiful supply of water for irrigation, abundance of cheap labor, facilities for economical transportation to the best markets, and, last but not least, the possession of distinct and very valuable types of cotton are a combination of conditions for the production of this staple that is well-nigh unrivaled. Hence it is that cotton can be grown at a profit in the Nile Delta on land that sells for from \$300 to \$800 an acre.

^a Farmers' Bulletin 209 gives full particulars regarding the fumigation of cotton seed.

^b The following description is based partly on the results of an expedition to Egypt made for the Office of Seed and Plant Introduction in 1902 by Messrs. T. H. Kearney, of the Bureau of Plant Industry, and T. H. Means, formerly of the Bureau of Soils, now of the United States Reclamation Service, the primary object of which was to study the cotton industry of the country and the climatic and soil conditions under which it exists. Published accounts of Egyptian agriculture have also been freely consulted. In regard to the varieties grown and the cultural methods used, much information has been drawn from Mr. G. P. Foaden's Notes on Egyptian Agriculture, published as Bulletin 62 of the Bureau of Plant Industry, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1904, to which the reader is referred for further details.

Agricultural Egypt consists of the long narrow valley and the broad fan-shaped delta of the River Nile. In the Nile Valley south of Cairo about 2,300,000 acres are in crops, while in the Delta, where nine-tenths of the cotton is produced, there are 3,400,000 acres of cultivated land. All of this land is under irrigation, the rainfall being wholly inadequate for crop production. An elaborate system of canals carries the water of the river to every part of the cultivated area. The recent completion of two great dams on the Nile in Upper Egypt, one for storage and the other for diversion, in addition to the diversion dam that has stood for many years at the point where the river forks, a few miles north of Cairo, insures a sufficient supply of water to irrigate practically this entire acreage, even in years when the river is lowest.

While other summer crops, such as rice, Indian corn, and, in southern Egypt, sugar cane and sorghum, are extensively grown, cotton is by far the most important money crop of the country and is in fact the backbone of Egyptian agriculture. It is estimated that this crop now occupies annually from one and one-half to one and three-fourths million acres. The fertility of the soil is in large part maintained by the almost universal practice of growing in winter leguminous forage crops, the most important of which is berseem, or Alexandrian clover.^a Cotton is grown once every two or three years in rotations which include clover or beans and wheat or barley as winter crops and Indian corn as a late summer crop.

PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE COUNTRY.

CLIMATE.^b

Egypt is essentially a great oasis in the midst of the most extensive body of extremely arid land in the world. West of the Nile and beginning almost at the river bank the Sahara stretches across northern Africa to the Atlantic Ocean. From the east bank of the river,

^a For a description of this plant and the important part it plays in Egyptian agriculture, see Bulletin No. 23 of the Bureau of Plant Industry, 1902; also Bulletin No. 62 of the same series, pp. 46-49.

^b The meteorological data for Egyptian localities are taken from Capt. H. G. Lyons' "Physiography of the Nile River and Its Basin," Cairo, 1906, pp. 296 to 298 and 339 to 341. The length of the periods covered by the observations is not stated. The data for Phoenix and Yuma, Ariz., have been obtained from Prof. A. J. Henry's "Climatology of the United States," Bulletin Q, U. S. Weather Bureau, 1906, pp. 907 and 909. The observations of temperature and humidity at Phoenix cover a period of eight years. Those of temperature at Yuma cover a period of twenty-eight years and those of humidity one of fifteen years. It should be noted that the observations are taken at Phoenix at a height of 47 feet above the ground and at Yuma at a height of 16 feet (5 feet during the first ten years), a difference that should probably be taken into account in comparing the records from the two stations.

interrupted only by the narrow Red Sea, the desert extends to north-western India. Consequently, except in the district near the Mediterranean Sea, Egypt has an arid climate. In southern Egypt especially the air is very dry and the rainfall is exceedingly light, the annual average, even at Cairo, being only 1 inch. In the Delta region, which borders on the Mediterranean, the rainfall is greater, averaging 8.26 inches at Alexandria, on the coast. The mean relative humidity, especially in the months from March to August, is also considerably greater in that part of the country.

As regards temperature, Egypt possesses a subtropical climate, the greater part of the country being nearly frost-free. The winters are short and mild, the summers very long and hot. These are excellent conditions for the varieties of cotton grown in Egypt, which require an unusually long season in order to ripen their entire crop.

The following table affords a comparison of the temperatures of Egypt with those of the southwestern portion of the United States:

TABLE I.—*Mean monthly and annual temperatures, in degrees Fahrenheit, at localities in Egypt and in the southwestern United States.**

Month.	Alexandria, Egypt.			Cairo, Egypt.			Phoenix, Ariz.			Yuma, Ariz.		
	Mean.	Mean of max- imum.	Mean of min- imum.	Mean.	Mean of max- imum.	Mean of min- imum.	Mean.	Mean of max- imum.	Mean of min- imum.	Mean.	Mean of max- imum.	Mean of min- imum.
	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.
January.....	57	64	51	54	65	44	52	65	39	54	66	42
February.....	60	70	53	57	70	47	56	68	41	59	72	46
March.....	63	70	55	62	75	50	60	73	46	64	78	50
April.....	66	74	59	70	83	55	67	82	52	70	85	55
May.....	71	79	64	77	91	61	75	90	60	77	98	61
June.....	76	82	60	82	95	65	85	101	69	85	101	68
July.....	79	85	73	88	97	69	90	104	77	92	106	77
August.....	80	86	74	83	95	69	90	102	76	91	104	77
September.....	79	86	72	78	90	66	83	97	69	84	100	70
October.....	75	82	69	74	86	63	71	86	56	73	87	58
November.....	68	75	61	66	76	54	61	75	46	62	76	49
December.....	61	68	54	59	68	48	52	66	38	56	68	44
Year.....	70	77	63	70	83	58	70	84	56	72	86	58

* The Delta of the Nile, in which the bulk of the Egyptian cotton crop is produced, lies between Cairo and Alexandria. Meteorological data are wanting for localities in the Delta itself, but the conditions are probably intermediate between those at Alexandria and at Cairo. Of the two localities in the southwestern United States for which data are given, Phoenix represents the Salt River Valley and Yuma the valley of the Colorado River. For the third important area which is believed to be well adapted to the culture of Egyptian varieties of cotton, i. e., the Imperial Valley, in southeastern California, the available records are not sufficient to serve as a basis for comparison.

Alexandria, on the Mediterranean coast of Egypt, has a less extreme climate than Cairo, which lies at the apex of the Delta of the Nile and almost touches the desert. The variation from season to season in mean temperatures and in the means of the maxima and minima is much smaller at Alexandria than at Cairo. Even at Cairo, however, the summers are decidedly cooler and the winters are somewhat warmer than at Phoenix and Yuma. The yearly means and means of the maximum and minimum temperatures are much alike at all four localities.

The table following shows the mean relative humidity of Alexandria and Cairo, Egypt, as compared with points in Arizona:

TABLE II.—*Mean relative humidity in percentages of saturation at localities in Egypt and in the southwestern United States.*

Month.	Alexan- dria, Egypt. ^a	Cairo, Egypt. ^a	Phoenix, Ariz. ^b	Yuma, Ariz. ^b
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
January.....	64	72	50	50
February.....	62	70	45	49
March.....	61	61	38	46
April.....	60	54	31	39
May.....	60	50	26	40
June.....	61	53	22	39
July.....	67	61	35	48
August.....	64	67	30	52
September.....	63	68	38	49
October.....	64	72	38	49
November.....	61	72	44	47
December.....	66	74	44	51
Year.....	63	64	38	46

^a One observation made at 8 to 9 a. m., daily.

^b Mean of two daily observations, at 5 a. m. and 5 p. m.

The above table is inserted because the humidity of the atmosphere at different localities is usually compared on the basis of percentages of possible saturation at the temperature prevailing when the observations are made; but there is reason to believe that the factor that vitally affects the growth of plants is the saturation deficit, i. e., the difference in weight between the amount of water vapor actually present in a given volume of the atmosphere and that required to saturate it at the mean temperature for the period under consideration. Hence the following table is likewise presented:

TABLE III.—*Mean saturation deficit (weight in grains of the additional water vapor required to saturate a cubic foot of air) at localities in Egypt and in the southwestern United States.*

Month.	Alexan- dria, Egypt.	Cairo, Egypt.	Phoenix, Ariz.	Yuma, Ariz.
	<i>Grains.</i>	<i>Grains.</i>	<i>Grains.</i>	<i>Grains.</i>
January.....	1.9	1.3	2.3	2.4
February.....	2.2	1.6	3.0	2.9
March.....	2.4	2.4	3.7	3.7
April.....	2.8	3.7	5.2	5.2
May.....	3.3	4.9	7.1	6.3
June.....	3.4	5.4	10.4	8.4
July.....	3.5	4.9	10.1	8.9
August.....	3.9	4.0	9.2	7.9
September.....	3.9	3.3	8.0	6.6
October.....	3.3	2.4	5.4	5.2
November.....	2.9	2.0	3.6	3.2
December.....	2.0	1.4	2.6	2.4
Year.....	3.0	2.9	5.2	4.6

During the summer months the saturation deficit is considerably greater at Cairo than at Alexandria, while in autumn and winter it is greater at Alexandria than at Cairo. At both Egyptian localities the saturation deficit throughout the year is much lower than at Phoenix and at Yuma, Ariz.

A curve representing the variation in the saturation deficit of the air from month to month throughout the year would be much the same for Alexandria and for Cairo. At both localities there is a rather gradual increase from the minimum in January to the maximum (which occurs in August and September at Alexandria, in June at Cairo), followed by a gradual decrease to the January minimum. A curve representing the variations from month to month at Phoenix and at Yuma would be on the whole similar, June to September being the months of maximum saturation deficit at these localities.

A characteristic feature of the early fall months in the Nile Delta are the heavy fogs, which often persist until 9 or 10 o'clock in the morning. This is a feature that is absent from the climate of the southwestern United States. When accompanied by excessive heat these fogs are said to cause premature dropping of the cotton bolls.

SOILS.

Egypt, to quote a familiar saying, is "the gift of the Nile." This is true in a double sense, since not only does the life of that nearly rainless country depend upon the water supplied by the river, but its agricultural soils are all of alluvial origin, being the accumulated sediment of countless Nile floods. As in the case of most alluvial soils, those of Egypt vary greatly in mechanical composition, according to the distance from existing or ancient stream channels at which they were laid down. Especially in the Delta region, clay loams and clays greatly predominate over other soils, but silt loams, loams, and sandy loams also occupy extensive areas, and near the edges of the desert almost pure sands occur. The clays and clay loams are mostly black in color and doubtless contain considerable organic matter. These soils, when dry, are apt to bake on the surface, thus giving up much moisture by evaporation, and to form deep cracks through which a great deal of water is lost by percolation. To prevent this the surface must be kept well mulched. All these soils are usually of a considerable depth, which is said to average 40 to 60 feet.^a

^a In his "Physiography of the River Nile and Its Basin" (Cairo, 1906, p. 339), Capt. H. G. Lyons gives the thickness of the sediment, as determined by eighteen borings made in various parts of the Delta and Valley of the Nile, as far south as Luxor. The average thickness, as shown by these borings, is 43½ feet.

The heavier soils are preferred for cotton culture in Egypt, as they are more retentive of moisture and lose their plant-food components less readily by leaching when irrigated. The silt loams, which have these properties in a high degree and are at the same time much less difficult to work than the clay loams and clays, are probably the most valuable of Egyptian soils. On the average, cotton is grown on much heavier land than in the United States. On the light soils in Egypt both yield and quality of fiber are said to be inferior.

In point of soil fertility it is found that when an exhaustive crop like cotton is grown for any length of time the supply of nitrogen soon becomes insufficient and ultimately fertilizers containing phosphoric acid are also found beneficial. Potash seems to be almost always present in adequate amount.

Under the ancient irrigation system of Egypt, which consisted in turning the water of the Nile during its annual flood into a series of extensive basins, no diminution in soil fertility was observed. Under this system no other irrigation was ordinarily given and only one crop was grown annually, wheat or barley being alternated with beans or clover. The nitrogen furnished by the leguminous crop, together with the small percentage of this element contained in the heavy deposits of sediment^a left in the basins after flooding, amply sufficed for the needs of the cereal crop. Nowadays the conditions are very different, since irrigations are given at frequent intervals, much more leaching takes place, less sediment is deposited, and cotton is extensively grown. Cotton is an exhaustive crop, especially under Egyptian conditions, since the seed, which contains about one-third of the nitrogen taken up by the cotton plant, is exported to Europe, with the exception of the small percentage that is required for planting.

As far as possible leguminous crops are grown in rotation, but even these fail to supply all the nitrogen required by the cotton plant, and the remainder must be obtained from other sources. The chief nitrogenous fertilizers available are barnyard manure and the débris of old villages, which contains nitrogen equivalent to 2 or 3 per cent of nitrate of soda. The supply of these materials is much smaller than the demand, however, and the need of commercial fertilizers is becoming every day more apparent.

Alkali resistance of the cotton plant.—In various parts of Egypt, especially in the northern part of the country, near the Mediter-

^a The Nile when highest carries in suspension at Cairo about 160 parts of solid matter per 100,000. This is a relatively small amount in comparison with that carried by the Colorado River at Yuma, Ariz., which averaged 700 parts per 100,000 throughout the year 1904. When we consider, however, that in Egypt the flood water stood in the basins for six weeks, depositing nearly all the material it held in suspension, we can infer that the total amount of sediment left behind was by no means insignificant.

anean, alkali soils occupy extensive areas. Sodium chlorid (common salt) seems generally to constitute the bulk of the salts present. The reclamation of these soils by washing and drainage has been undertaken on a large scale, partly by the government and partly by private capital. Cotton, which is usually put in at the earliest possible moment on these "washed lands," has been shown by soil tests to be superior to most crop plants in its ability to withstand alkali. Near Alexandria a good stand of cotton was found by Means and Kearney to be growing where the first 2 feet of the soil contained 0.6 per cent of readily soluble salts, and occasional plants were able to withstand nearly 2 per cent.^a

The presence of a moderate amount of salt in the soil is generally considered in Egypt as beneficial to cotton. It is said to check the tendency to excessive growth, to hasten ripening, and to improve the length, strength, and color of the fiber.^b Even when considerably more than 1 per cent is present the strength of the fiber is said not to suffer greatly, although the length is impaired.

VARIETIES GROWN.

The varieties of cotton known as "Egyptian" are unquestionably of American origin. They belong to the same botanical species (*Gossypium barbadense*) as the Sea Island varieties or to a closely related species. Like the Sea Island varieties they have yellow flowers, small, pointed, three-locked bolls (Pl. IV), and smooth black seeds. The bolls are chiefly borne at the ends of long branches rather than close to the main stem, as in most Upland varieties. The Egyptian varieties, as is shown in Plates II and III, make larger plants than do most American Upland varieties. It is said that in 1818 Sea Island cotton was introduced into Egypt from Georgia by a French agriculturist named Jumel and that from this source the present Egyptian varieties are descended.^c Other authorities consider Egyptian

^a See T. H. Means, "Reclamation of Alkali Lands in Egypt," Bulletin No. 21 of the Bureau of Soils, U. S. Department of Agriculture. Also T. H. Kearney and T. H. Means, "Crops Used in the Reclamation of Alkali Lands in Egypt," Yearbook, U. S. Department of Agriculture for 1902, pp. 573 to 588 (especially pp. 586 and 587).

^b Fertilizers containing phosphoric acid are said to produce the same effects and to counteract the excessive vegetative growth caused by too liberal application of nitrogenous manures.

^c In all likelihood they have originated by mutation or discontinuous variation, a phenomenon which would be very apt to appear in such narrow-bred local varieties as the Sea Island when transported to an entirely new environment. The suddenness with which recently created Egyptian varieties have appeared and the obscurity attending their origin lend further probability to this view. The relative fixity of their characters during the first few years in which they are extensively grown argues against a hybrid origin, hybrids between different species of cotton being notoriously difficult to "fix."

cotton more nearly related to Peruvian cotton (*Gossypium peruvianum*), which was also formerly grown in Egypt.

While closely resembling each other in many of their characters and constituting a well-defined type, at least from an agricultural and commercial point of view, several well-marked varieties of cotton now exist in Egypt. At the present time the varieties that are chiefly grown are Ashmuni, Mit Afifi, Jannovitch, and Abbasi.

Ashmuni.—Ashmuni is the oldest of the four varieties and was formerly the most widely grown, although now largely supplanted by more valuable kinds. Its fiber is relatively short ($1\frac{1}{8}$ to $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches), and possesses neither the strength, fineness, nor luster of the Mit Afifi. In color it is pale brown. It ripens earlier than the other varieties and is considered to be the one that is best adapted to the hot, dry climate of southern Egypt, where alone it is now grown. It gives about 30 per cent of lint in ginning. Its average yield per acre is low compared with that of the other varieties, and its fiber sells for about one dollar less per hundred pounds.

Mit Afifi.^a—In acreage and the total value of its product the Mit Afifi far exceeds all the other varieties. At least 70 per cent of the total Egyptian acreage in cotton is of this variety.^b

Mit Afifi is the standard variety of the country, so much so that when Egyptian cotton is referred to, this variety is ordinarily meant. It is considered the hardest variety grown in the country and the one that is surest to give a good yield of high-grade fiber under a great diversity of conditions. Mit Afifi was brought into cultivation about thirty years ago, and is said to have originated from a variety, now little grown, known as Gallini, which was itself of American Sea Island origin, if the local tradition can be trusted. Mit Afifi resembles the Ashmuni variety in so many ways, however, that it is more likely to have originated directly from the latter. The Mit Afifi variety has very strong and fine, lustrous fiber, averaging $1\frac{1}{8}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length. When typical, it has a light brown color, more pronounced than that of Ashmuni. In Egypt it turns out in ginning from 33 to 35 per cent of lint and its yield on "good average soil" is said to be ordinarily from 500 to 600 pounds of fiber to the acre.

Jannovitch.—This is the most recent variety that is extensively grown. It is said to have developed about thirteen years ago as a cross between Mit Afifi and Gallini, although more likely a mutation from one or the other. It is considered to surpass all other Egyptian varieties in the strength and fineness of its fiber, as well as in length,

^a Pronounced as if spelled Mit Afeefy.

^b In 1906, 75.5 per cent of the total crop was Mit Afifi, 15 per cent Ashmuni, 5.5 per cent Jannovitch, and 2.7 per cent Abbasi.

averaging $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches. Its silkiness, luster, and delicate cream color make it one of the most beautiful cottons in existence. The quality of the fiber from the different pickings is said to be more uniform in this than in the other Egyptian varieties. In yield per acre it is inferior to Mit Afifi, the difference amounting, it is said, to 10 per cent. In ginning, its percentage of lint falls below that of Mit Afifi, averaging 30 to $31\frac{1}{2}$. Notwithstanding this fact, Jannovitch generally brings from \$2 to \$2.50 more than Mit Afifi per 315 pounds of seed cotton (the unit on which prices are based in Egypt). This variety is said to succeed best on the more or less salty land near the seacoast. It is regarded as more liable than Mit Afifi to premature opening of the bolls and loss of fiber. In 1902, however, when conditions in Egypt were generally unfavorable to cotton, Jannovitch suffered less than did Mit Afifi.

Abbasi.—The Abbasi much resembles the American Sea Island varieties. It has a fine, silky fiber, pure white in color, and somewhat longer but not so strong as that of Mit Afifi. The percentage of lint is about the same as in Mit Afifi. In the Abbasi variety the lint obtained at the first picking is said to be of much better quality than that from later pickings, the difference in this respect being more marked than in other Egyptian varieties. First picking Abbasi sometimes sells for a higher price than any other Egyptian cotton. Abbasi is reputed to be more drought resistant than Mit Afifi and under favorable conditions to give heavier yields. The bolls of Abbasi are exceptionally long and sharp pointed.

Nubari.—Very recently a variety known as Nubari has originated in the Nile Delta. It is described as intermediate between Mit Afifi and Jannovitch, having stronger and more lustrous fiber than the former.

QUALITY AND GRADES OF EGYPTIAN COTTON.

Many grades of each variety are distinguished by importers of Egyptian cotton. The cotton is graded twice, once before ginning and again at Alexandria, where it is rebaled for export. Such characters as strength, fineness, uniformity, color, luster, and percentage of waste are all taken into account in fixing the grade to which a particular sample belongs. The length appears to vary but little in the different varieties. The amount of "trash" present is a very important factor in grading this class of cotton.

Much anxiety has recently been felt in Egypt on account of the evident deterioration of the leading varieties. Mit Afifi especially is showing much less constancy than formerly in the brown color of its fiber, a character that is of much importance in this variety. Spinners also complain that the twist of the fiber, upon which its strength largely depends, is becoming less pronounced. Even re-

cently created varieties like Abbasi and Jannovitch are every year less true to type. The belief in Egypt is that this degeneration is due primarily to lack of care in the choice of seed for planting. It is thought that only careful selection can preserve and improve the varieties and this is now being undertaken both by the government and by individual growers. Special attention is being given to keeping up the brown color and other characters of Mit Afifi, which is justly regarded as the standard Egyptian cotton.

CULTURAL METHODS.

Owing to the cheapness of labor in Egypt, fifteen cents a day being the ordinary wages, the cultural methods in use there could not be followed in the United States without considerable modification. Nevertheless, a brief description of the Egyptian system will undoubtedly afford useful suggestions to those intending to grow cotton under irrigation in the Southwest.

PREPARATION OF THE LAND.

A two-year rotation is most frequently practiced in Egypt and is generally as follows: During the first year, clover (berseem) is grown as a winter crop, followed by cotton in summer. When the cotton is removed, a winter crop of either beans or wheat is sown and is harvested the following June. The land is then either left fallow during the second summer or corn is sown in July as a "flood crop,"^a and is followed by berseem sown in the autumn. In the third spring cotton is again planted. Formerly it was more common to use a three-year rotation, which resembled the preceding, except that during the second winter either beans or clover were grown and during the third winter wheat or barley, followed by a second crop of corn.

When cotton follows corn or a fallow the land can be put into excellent shape for planting, being generally plowed in the fall as soon as the corn is removed. But if cotton is to be planted immediately after clover, the conditions are likely to be less satisfactory. Much of the cotton is grown by small farmers who are unwilling to plow up the clover upon which they mainly depend for forage for their domestic animals until just before the time arrives for planting cotton. Consequently, the land is apt to be full of undecomposed

^a This late planting allows the corn crop to be abundantly irrigated throughout its growth, the Nile being at flood during the late summer and early fall months. During the first part of the summer, when the river is lowest, it is often necessary to devote all the available water to the cotton crop, to which, if necessary, everything else is sacrificed.

roots and to be wet, plowing up into clods. A poor stand of cotton and much replanting are the results. Except on the least fertile soils, it is found that the cotton crop is injured rather than benefited by immediately following clover. An intervening crop of grain or a period of fallow is necessary to secure the greatest possible benefit from the clover.

The importance of thorough preparation of the land before planting cotton is fully appreciated in Egypt. Cotton roots descend deep into the soil, and it is found that the deeper the plowing has been the better the plants withstand drought in case of a shortage of irrigation water. On large estates steam plows are now generally used, and the soil is turned over in the fall to a depth of 12 inches. But the great bulk of the cotton acreage is worked with the primitive plow of the country, drawn by a team of oxen, which loosens the soil to a depth of only about 6 inches, without turning it. If, as is now often practiced, a second plow follows the first in the same furrow, the soil can be worked to a considerably greater depth. Four plowings, two at right angles to the others, are usually given in preparing land for cotton. After plowing, the soil is frequently harrowed and then rolled to break up clods. Care is taken, however, not to pulverize the heavier soils too thoroughly, as in that case they tend to bake and crack, thus losing much moisture.

When these operations are completed the land is at once ridged. Ridging is usually done with the native plow, the width of the furrow being increased by stuffing sacking or some other bulky material into the angle between the beam and the share. The ridges are then shaped into beds by men working with the "fass," or short-handled hoe, a tool that is indispensable to the Egyptian agriculturist. The beds are usually made about 36 feet long, this being the average distance between the borders that intersect the beds at right angles, dividing the field into "lands" for irrigation. Cotton is irrigated by the furrow method in Egypt, and this is usually managed so that six or seven furrows can be irrigated together.

Farm manure, which costs about 20 cents a ton in most parts of Egypt, when used at all is put on at the rate of 10 to 15 tons to the acre. Old, well-rotted manure is preferred. Most frequently the manure is applied after the plants are above ground, being either hoed into the furrows or scattered at the roots of each plant, a laborious operation, only possible in a country where labor is as cheap as it is in Egypt. Often, however, the manure is put on before planting. Sometimes it is spread before the ridges are made, but more frequently it is placed in the furrows and subsequently covered up by splitting the ridges. Where cotton immediately follows a crop of berseem, manure is not generally used.

PLANTING.

Planting is done chiefly in March, although, especially in southern Egypt, it sometimes begins as early as the 10th of February. There is a general conviction in Egypt that early planting gives the best results, the stand being better and the plants producing less wood in proportion to fiber. It is believed that better yields and a better quality of fiber are thus obtained. The cold winds frequent in March are said to cause least injury to early-sown cotton. As far as possible replanting should be avoided, since it is difficult to manage the earlier irrigations without injury to some of the plants if these are in different stages of growth.

Cotton is planted closer than in the southern United States, notwithstanding the fact that the plants of Egyptian varieties make a larger growth than American Upland varieties. The average distance between the rows is only about $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet and the "hills" are usually 15 or 16 inches apart in the rows, with two plants in each hill. Hence the average number of plants to the acre is about 26,000. The general opinion in Egypt is that even in the best soils the distance between the rows can not be made more than 3 feet or that between the "hills" more than 2 feet without diminishing the yield.

Seed is planted at an average rate of $1\frac{1}{4}$ bushels per acre. It is put in on the side of the furrow, about two-thirds of the distance from the bottom. In planting, a man with a "fass," or short-handled hoe, goes up and down the rows, making holes at intervals of 15 or 16 inches. He is followed by a boy, who drops into each hole 8 or 10 seeds, covering them to a depth of 2 or 3 inches. Usually ten or twelve days are required for germination.

IRRIGATING.

A watering is usually given immediately after planting, although sometimes the field receives an irrigation just before planting is begun. In the latter case the furrows are filled about two-thirds full and the seed is put in along the high-water mark. When the second or "wet" method of planting is followed, it is easier to put in the seed at a uniform level, but on the other hand the land becomes so dry before it is possible to determine whether replanting will be necessary that another irrigation must first be given, and this delays replanting a week or ten days longer.

The second irrigation generally takes place about thirty-five days after planting. It is found that the best results are obtained if this watering is postponed as long as can be done without injury to the plants. This causes the roots to strike deep into the soil from the outset, stimulates the plant to branch from the base, and prevents the lower part of the stem from making a soft and weak growth which is

later unable to hold up the weight of bolls. This watering is a light one, the water not being allowed to stand high enough in the furrows to reach the plants. From twenty-five to thirty days elapse between the second and third irrigations and about twenty days between the third and the fourth. The fourth usually occurs some time between May 20 and the 1st of June. Thereafter, until the end of August, two waterings monthly are generally given. When the Nile is very low, however, it is sometimes necessary to increase the interval between irrigations to three weeks and to restrict the amount of water that can be applied each time.

Altogether, ten irrigations are commonly given between the date of planting and that of the first picking, care being taken so to time the last watering that the soil will become dry before picking should begin. A watering is given as soon as the first picking is completed, and often one between the second and third pickings. It is estimated that cotton receives at each watering about $3\frac{1}{2}$ acre-inches, or an average total of 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ acre-feet of water during the whole season.

The tendency in Egypt, as in other countries where irrigation is practiced, is to apply more water than the crop really needs. Excessive irrigation causes too rank a growth, dropping of the bolls, and late ripening, besides injuring the quality of the fiber. It is well known that in years when the water supply is low and the amount of water that can be applied is restricted by the irrigation service, the crop is frequently larger and of better quality than when a freer use of water is permitted. Thus, in 1899, when the Nile was unusually low, it was observed that in many localities the fiber was longer and finer than that produced the year before, when water for irrigation was more plentiful. There is a minimum, however, below which it is not safe to go in irrigating cotton. In localities where the supply of water is normally small it was quite inadequate in 1899. As a result, the plants were abnormally small, the yields were low, and the fiber was short. It is interesting that in 1899 the product was most inferior in the very districts which in ordinary years have the highest reputation for the quality of their cotton. On the other hand, districts where an excessive amount of water is generally used and where the quality of the fiber is usually inferior, produced the best cotton grown in Egypt in 1899.

CULTIVATING.

Cultivating is performed entirely by hand in Egypt, even on the large estates where modern machinery is used in other agricultural operations. In fact, the cotton rows are too close together to allow the use of a horse cultivator for any considerable length of time after the plants are above ground. The work of cultivating is very onerous,

owing to the universal use of a short-handled hoe, which requires the laborer to assume a stooping position.

On well-managed farms a hoeing is given as soon as the plants are well above ground. It is considered desirable to thin the rows before the second watering, which, as we have seen, is given about thirty-five days after planting. The two strongest plants are then left in each "hill." At the same time some farmers give the beds another hoeing. When the soil has dried sufficiently after the first watering that follows planting, the second (or third) hoeing is given. In the practice of many farmers, however, this is the first hoeing that is given. The third (or fourth) hoeing follows the third irrigation (sixty or sixty-five days after planting), and the fourth (or fifth) hoeing takes place after the fourth watering (eighty to eighty-five days after planting). This is usually the last hoeing, the growth of the plants thereafter making tillage impracticable. From that time until the first picking begins the crop requires no labor except that involved in irrigating. More frequently only three or four hoeings are given, either the first or second, as above described, and sometimes both being omitted by all but the best farmers.

The hoeings are so managed that earth is each time brought up around the plants from the opposite edge of the furrows, which are thus gradually moved in one direction across the field. Consequently the plants, which at the outset stood on the slope of the furrows at the edge of the beds, are at the top and in the center of the beds by the time the third hoeing is completed.

PICKING.

Cotton picking begins in southern Egypt before the end of August, but in the Delta region, where the bulk of the crop is grown, the first picking generally commences about September 10. A second picking is made in October and a third in November. Sometimes a fourth picking is made, while occasionally the whole crop is harvested in two pickings. It is considered especially important with Egyptian cotton to begin picking as soon as enough bolls are ripe to make it worth while, since long exposure to the sun is said to cause the brown color to fade. As a rule 35 per cent of the total crop is harvested at the first picking, 45 per cent at the second, and 20 per cent at the third, but these proportions vary considerably from year to year. The fiber from each picking is graded and marked separately, that from the first picking being generally the best and that from the third picking the poorest. This work is done largely by children, who pick on an average 30 to 40 pounds of seed cotton a day, for which they are paid at the rate of 18 to 20 cents per hundred pounds. The seed cotton is packed in sacks holding about 400 pounds and is then ready for shipment to the ginnery.

GINNING AND BALING.

The product is generally sold where it is grown, as seed cotton, and is transported by the buyer to one of the ginneries which are located in various parts of the cotton-growing region. Most of these establishments operate a large number of gins. Some of them have a daily capacity of 300 Egyptian bales (about 200,000 pounds of lint).

As in the case of Sea Island cotton in the United States, the roller gin alone is used, since the saw gin employed for American Upland cotton injures the long-staple Egyptian varieties. The ginned fiber is shipped, usually in rough bales, to Alexandria. There it passes through compresses and is turned out in the neat bales, bound with eleven hoops, in which Egyptian cotton reaches the European and American markets. These bales, although smaller than the average American compressed bale, weigh from 700 to 800 pounds. They are about one and one-half times as compact as the American bale, the average density being 35.8 pounds per cubic foot in the Egyptian and 23.6 pounds in the American bale.

YIELDS AND MARKETS.^a

The cotton production of Egypt is large in proportion to the area annually devoted to this crop, which during the four years from 1903 to 1906 averaged 1,500,000 acres. Practically the entire crop, both lint and seed, is shipped to Europe and America, so that the statistics of exports fairly represent the total production of the country. During the nine years from 1898 to 1906 the total exports averaged 611,872,285 pounds of fiber. Assuming that the area in cotton during these years averaged 1,500,000 acres, the yield per acre for the whole country during this period was about 408 pounds.^b When carefully chosen seed of good varieties is used and the soil and cultural conditions are favorable, yields of 800 and, in exceptional cases, of even 1,100 pounds of fiber are obtained.

Of the total exports of cotton from Egypt during the nine years from 1898 to 1906 about 50 per cent went to the United Kingdom (Great Britain and Ireland). The United States was among the heaviest importers, ranking third in 1902 and second in 1903. Russia, Austria, France, and Italy also imported large quantities. Nearly all of the principal countries in Europe obtain cotton from Egypt, and even India and Japan receive some of the product.

^a The statistics given in the following pages were furnished by Mr. G. K. Holmes, Chief of the Office of Foreign Markets, Bureau of Statistics, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

^b In 1904 Mr. George P. Foaden estimated the average yield per acre at about 410 pounds. See Bulletin No. 62 of the Bureau of Plant Industry, 1904, p. 43. Mr. A. A. Haserick estimated the average yield per acre to have been only 360 pounds in 1905.

The importation of cotton from Egypt into the United States has been very considerable in recent years. In 1902 the high-water mark of 81,325,158 pounds was reached, but this figure was very nearly equaled in 1907, when 78,783,913 pounds were imported.

The following table shows the amount imported during each of the ten years from 1898 to 1907:

TABLE IV.—*Imports of cotton fiber from Egypt into the United States during the years 1898 to 1907, inclusive.*

Year.	Pounds.
1898	38, 165, 061
1899	37, 506, 062
1900	53, 554, 586
1901	34, 735, 682
1902	81, 325, 158
1903	63, 554, 773
1904	39, 249, 878
1905	52, 436, 673
1906	57, 860, 814
1907	78, 783, 913
Average	53, 717, 260

In addition, there has been during the same period an average yearly importation into the United States of cotton from the United Kingdom to the extent of 8,536,357 pounds. The greater part of this is undoubtedly Egyptian cotton.

The table that follows gives the average price per pound of Egyptian cotton in the Alexandria, Liverpool, and Boston markets during each of the ten years from 1898 to 1907. The Alexandria prices are those of cotton that was exported to the United States. The Liverpool prices are those of "good, fair Egyptian." For comparison the average prices of American Middling Upland on the Liverpool and Boston markets during the same period are added.

TABLE V.—*Average prices, in cents per pound, of Egyptian and American Middling Upland cottons on the Alexandria, Liverpool, and Boston markets, from 1898 to 1907, inclusive.*

Year.	Egyptian.			American Middling Upland.	
	Alexandria.	Liverpool.	Boston.	Liverpool.	Boston. ^a
	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Cents.</i>
1898	9.3	9.0	10.1	6.7	5.9
1899	9.9	10.7	11.5	7.2	6.5
1900	11.5	15.0	14.7	11.1	9.5
1901	15.0	11.8	13.5	9.6	8.7
1902	11.7	13.9	13.7	9.7	8.9
1903	11.6	17.8	16.1	12.2	11.0
1904	17.9	16.2	17.3	13.4	12.5
1905	15.6	14.8	15.9	10.3	9.3
1906	15.5	19.8	18.7	14.1	11.0
1907	20.3	21.4	21.9	13.2	11.8
Average	14.1	15.0	15.3	10.7	9.5

^a Mean closing prices for "spot" cotton, compiled from the "Commercial and Financial Chronicle" (published in New York).

The table shows that during the last ten years there has been an advance in the price of Egyptian cotton corresponding closely to the rise in price of American Upland cotton. The ruling price for the latter evidently largely determines that at which Egyptian cotton is quoted. The difference between the Alexandria and the Boston prices, averaging 1.2 cents per pound, presumably represents the cost of transportation, insurance, and other fixed charges between these ports.

The average price of Egyptian cotton on the Boston market during the past ten years has been a little more than one and one-half times that of American Middling Upland, but in 1907 Egyptian cotton sold on the average for nearly twice as much as Upland. It must be remembered that there is a great diversity in Egyptian cotton, some of it bringing much higher prices than are represented by the average for the "good fair" grade. It is a conservative estimate that Egyptian cotton of the quality which experiments have demonstrated can be produced in the southwestern United States will be worth more than one and one-half times as much as Middling Upland cotton. In 1903, when the price of "good fair" Egyptian averaged 14½ cents per pound at Alexandria, a cotton buyer at that place estimated the Jannovitch grown the year before at Calexico, Cal., as worth 21 to 22 cents.

USES OF EGYPTIAN COTTON BY AMERICAN MANUFACTURERS.^a

The variety of Egyptian cotton that is most used by American manufacturers is Mit Afifi, which constitutes at least three-fourths of the total imports. The grade most largely used averages 1½ inches in length and furnishes numbers of yarns up to 70's and 80's. Jannovitch, and to a small extent Abbasi, averaging 1½ to 1¾ inches in length of fiber, are used as a substitute for the lower grades of Sea Island in manufacturing fine yarns (100's and upward). A small quantity of the inferior Ashmuni variety is also imported.

There are four principal reasons for the extensive use of Egyptian cottons in the United States: (1) They are best adapted to mercerizing and other processes that give a high finish to the cloth and cause it to resemble silk; (2) their exceptional clearness (freedom from nep) and luster, as well as their capacity for taking dyes, fit them for mixing with silk and for filling sateen, India linens, and similar goods having a brilliant surface; (3) the brown color of Mit Afifi fiber allows it to be used without dyeing in manufacturing goods such as Balbriggan underwear^b and lace curtains, in which the ecru

^a Based upon information obligingly furnished by some thirty of the principal importers and manufacturers of Egyptian cotton in the United States.

^b Although less in demand for this purpose than formerly.

shade is desired; (4) they can be used for the manufacture of sewing thread and other articles which need to be very strong and for which no other type of cotton but Sea Island is suitable. Owing to the higher price of the latter, Egyptian cottons can in many cases be advantageously substituted.

Among the various classes of goods wholly or partly made from Egyptian cottons may be enumerated lawns, sateens, twills, serges, and fabrics for covering umbrellas, as well as other highly finished cotton cloths. In these goods they are used largely as weft or filling. They are especially suited for making heavy fabrics that must also be soft and fine. Their fineness and luster adapt them to mixing with silk in cloths, floss, and braids. They are largely used in the manufacture of sewing thread and of fabrics for insulating and for bicycle and automobile tires.^a The lower grades of Mit Afifi are much employed for hosiery yarns.

Except in cases where the brown-colored fiber is especially desired there seems to be little reason for preferring Egyptian to Sea Island cotton, although one manufacturer reports that within the range of the numbers used, the former furnishes a cleaner and better-looking filling than either Sea Island or Peeler (long-staple Upland) cottons. The highest grades of Sea Island have longer and finer fiber than any other cotton and therefore make stronger and finer yarns and thread. For these grades the Egyptian can not be substituted,^b but in manufacturing various classes of goods the somewhat lower price of Egyptian cottons allows them to be used to advantage in place of the lower grades of the Sea Island, especially when the supply of the latter is below the normal.

On the other hand, manufacturers seem to be generally agreed that for a number of purposes the Egyptian types can not be replaced by American long-staple Upland or Peeler cottons. The former have fiber that is stronger, finer, and more lustrous or "classy" than corresponding lengths of the long-staple Uplands, and give yarns, thread, and cloths that are stronger and clearer (i. e., freer from "nep") than can be made from the latter.^c There seems to be no

^a When prices permit, however, Sea Island is preferred for the last purpose, except for the manufacture of goods that are not to be exposed to very hard usage.

^b One manufacturer of thread states: "We do not know of any Egyptian cotton which can successfully compete with Sea Island for counts [of yarns] finer than No. 110's."

^c This freedom from nep or knots is one of the most desirable characteristics of goods manufactured from Egyptian cotton. It is somewhat questionable, however, whether it is not partly due to the fact that in Egypt roller gins are exclusively used in separating the fiber.

question of the superiority of the Egyptian over the long-staple Upland varieties in manufacturing strong sewing thread and cloths in which a smooth, lustrous finish is desired.

Apart from specific qualities of the fiber, American manufacturers give other reasons for preferring Egyptian cotton. They state that it is usually more carefully ginned, graded, and baled and is apt to be freer from trash and short fiber, hence giving less waste in carding and combing than either Sea Island or long-staple Upland cottons. Egyptian cotton is also esteemed for its evenness of staple, the different grades showing little variation in this respect from year to year.

EGYPTIAN COTTON CULTURE IN THE UNITED STATES.

AREAS ADAPTED TO THIS TYPE OF COTTON.

The Egyptian varieties are apparently best adapted to culture under irrigation in regions where there is practically no rainfall during the growing season. The only part of the United States where these conditions exist and where at the same time the summers are long and hot enough for profitable cotton culture is the extreme Southwest, from western Texas to southern California.

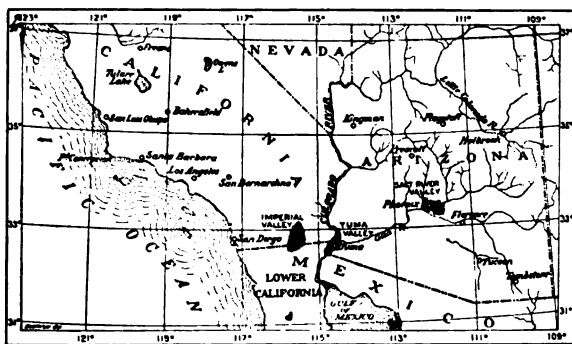


FIG. 1.—Map of Arizona and southern California, showing the location of the Salt River, Yuma, and Imperial valleys.

Since this type of cotton will continue to produce bolls and ripen fiber until a hard frost occurs, it is obvious that the largest yields can be obtained in regions where the autumn temperatures are highest. We must therefore conclude that the greatest success with Egyptian cotton is to be expected in southern Arizona and southeastern California—a conclusion that is supported by the experience so far gained. The valleys of the Salt River and of the Colorado River (Yuma Valley) in Arizona and the Imperial Valley in California have been found to be admirably adapted to the production of this type of cotton. The location of these districts is indicated on the map (fig. 1). It will be well to note briefly the physical characteristics of this region before proceeding to a discussion of the experiments that have been carried on there with Egyptian cotton.

CLIMATE.

Meteorological records covering periods of several years are available for Phoenix and Yuma, Ariz. Data as to temperatures and atmospheric humidity at these localities have already been given in connection with the discussion of the climate of the cotton-growing district in Egypt. These two stations represent, respectively, the Salt River Valley and the Yuma Valley. In the Imperial Valley observations have been taken only during the past three years and under conditions that make a direct comparison with Phoenix and Yuma of doubtful value.

Temperatures (see Table I) are slightly higher at Yuma than at Phoenix, the annual mean temperature, mean of the maximum, and mean of the minimum temperatures being each 2 degrees F. higher at the former locality. At Yuma the mean of the annual absolute maximum temperatures is 113° and that of the annual absolute minimum temperatures is 29° F. It should be noted, however, that in the Yuma Valley itself the minima are undoubtedly lower than at the Yuma Weather Bureau station where observations are taken, the latter being situated at a somewhat higher elevation, adjoining the mesa which borders the valley. Severe frosts frequently occur in the valley from the middle of November to the first of March.

The rainfall at both Phoenix and Yuma is so small as to be practically negligible from the point of view of cotton culture. At Phoenix it is 6.8 inches yearly, while at Yuma the average is only 2.7 inches. The difference is most pronounced in the summer and early autumn, when there is considerable precipitation in the Salt River Valley, but practically none in the valley of the Colorado.

As regards atmospheric humidity (see Tables II and III), the air normally contains considerably more moisture at Yuma than at Phoenix. This is true in every month of the year except January, although the difference is most pronounced during the months from May to September. The mean annual relative humidity (in percentages of saturation) is 38 at Phoenix and 46 at Yuma. The mean annual absolute humidity (in weight in grains of the water vapor in a cubic foot of air) is 2.8 at Phoenix and 3.9 at Yuma.

In the Imperial Valley the temperatures are probably normally higher than at either Phoenix or Yuma. This is indicated by the fact that in 1906 the annual mean of the maximum temperatures at Heber (8 miles south of Imperial and 57 miles due west of Yuma) was 88° F., while at Yuma it was 85° and at Phoenix 83° F. On the other hand, the annual mean of the minimum temperatures was the same at Heber as at Phoenix (56° F.), but was 2 degrees lower than at Yuma. The annual mean temperature at the three

localities in 1906 was as follows: Heber and Yuma, 72°; Phoenix, 70° F.^a

The rainfall in the Imperial Valley is probably about the same as at Yuma. At Salton, Cal., the nearest locality at which measurements have been made during a series of years, the average total yearly rainfall is 2.5 inches.

Data are lacking for a satisfactory comparison of the atmospheric humidity in the Imperial Valley with that in the Salt River and Yuma valleys, but there is reason to believe that the air is normally drier in the Imperial Valley than at either of the Arizona localities.

As has already been remarked, the climate of southern Arizona and southeastern California is more extreme than that of the portion of Egypt where cotton culture is carried on, the summers being hotter and the winters colder; furthermore, the mean humidity of the atmosphere is much lower in the southwestern United States than in the Delta of the Nile. In Egypt the comparatively moist condition of the atmosphere that prevails during the period when cotton is ripening is considered an important factor in the production of a high quality of fiber, but experience in the southwestern United States has demonstrated that the Egyptian varieties of cotton can adapt themselves to a much drier atmosphere than that prevailing in the Nile Delta without injury to the quality of their fiber.

In point of temperature the climate of southern Arizona and southeastern California is an ideal one for cotton of the Egyptian type, which differs from Upland varieties in requiring a much longer season and a much greater sum total of heat in order to produce its maximum yield of fiber. The usual absence of killing frosts after the 1st of March makes it possible to plant earlier than in most parts of the cotton belt of the United States. The long, very hot summer permits the formation of the greatest possible number of bolls. Finally, the warm weather that ordinarily prevails until the 1st of December is highly favorable to ripening and allows four or five pickings to be made.

Another great advantage in growing this type of cotton in the Southwest is the very small precipitation. Cotton growing under rainfall has certain disadvantages that are avoided when the crop is produced under irrigation in a nearly rainless region. In the main cotton belt of the United States preparation for planting must often be delayed until the ground dries out sufficiently to be worked. Dry

^a In comparing these records it must be borne in mind that at Heber the observations were made at a height of only 5 feet from the surface of the ground, while at Yuma they were made at a height of 16 feet, and at Phoenix of 47 feet.

spells may occur in spring when the plants should be making their most vigorous growth. Prolonged wet spells in late summer and early fall may retard ripening, interfere with picking, and injure the ripe fiber by beating it out of the open bolls and discoloring it. Under irrigation in regions of little rainfall these drawbacks are avoided. The soil moisture is under the control of the farmer. By giving relatively large amounts of water during the early stages the plants are stimulated to make a vigorous growth. Later in the season, the production of bolls and the ripening of the fiber can be hastened by using water sparingly. Furthermore, the ground need never be wet at the time when picking should commence, and there is no danger of the discoloration of the fiber through a period of rainy weather at the time of ripening. This is a very important consideration as regards the principal Egyptian varieties of cotton, in which good color is a valuable characteristic.

Apart from the general advantages that irrigation affords in connection with cotton growing there is some reason to believe that it is characteristic of the Egyptian varieties to give better results when grown in regions of small rainfall where artificial watering is necessary. An expert on the subject in Egypt^a told one of the writers in 1902 that Egyptian varieties, when tested in the Sudan, underwent from 15 to 20 per cent of deterioration in localities where the rainfall was sufficient to produce a crop, but deteriorated only 2 to 3 per cent where irrigation had to be practiced. In the former case the staple was shorter and the seeds tended to become covered with short fiber.

SOILS.^b

The soils of the Salt River, Yuma, and Imperial valleys vary in texture from a sandy loam to a heavy clay, or adobe. In the Imperial Valley the average soil is heavier than in the Salt River and Yuma valleys, resembling much of the soil of the Nile Delta. These soils often show great diversity in a field of a few acres, the variation

^a Mr. Benachi, of the firm of Choremi, Benachi & Co.

^b For a fuller account of the soils of the Colorado River region, the reader is referred to the following publications of the Bureau of Soils, United States Department of Agriculture: (1) Soil Survey in Salt River Valley, Arizona, by Thomas H. Means; Field Operations of the Division of Soils in 1900, pp. 287 to 332, 1901. (2) Soil Survey around Imperial, Cal., by Thomas H. Means and J. Garnett Holmes; Field Operations of the Bureau of Soils in 1901, pp. 587 to 606, 1902. (3) Soil Survey of the Yuma Area, Arizona, by J. Garnett Holmes; Field Operations of the Bureau of Soils in 1902, pp. 777 to 791, 1903. These publications give the area and distribution of the different types of soils in the three valleys and also the area and distribution of the different grades of alkali soils.

being especially noticeable when the land is first brought under cultivation. The lighter soils are generally regarded as the best for cultivated crops; they work readily, are easily kept in a tillable condition, and can be cultivated soon after irrigation.^a The heavy soils are well adapted to growing alfalfa and cereals. It may be observed that the physical condition and water-holding capacity of most southwestern soils could be greatly improved by the addition of organic matter in the form of barnyard manure, by plowing under green-manure crops, or by including alfalfa in a long-period rotation.

While for the most part the soils of the Salt River, Yuma, and Imperial valleys are naturally very fertile, it is probable that if cotton becomes an important crop in the region leguminous crops will have to be grown in rotation with it in order to keep up the supply of nitrogen, since the cotton plant draws heavily upon this element.

Alkali is found in more or less injurious quantities in various parts of these three valleys. As a rule the alkali accumulations are found principally in the upper 3 or 4 feet of soil and are often largely concentrated in the surface foot, to which they are raised by capillary activity, aided by the great evaporation which is characteristic of that region. The alkali is chiefly the less injurious "white alkali," consisting mainly of sodium chlorid and sodium sulphate. "Black alkali" (sodium carbonate), which gives the soil an alkaline reaction in the true chemical sense, is seldom present in dangerous quantities. It is probable that only a small percentage of the total area capable of irrigation in the Salt River, Yuma, and Imperial valleys contains enough of these salts to seriously hinder the growing of cotton, which, as has already been stated, is one of the most alkali-resistant crop plants.

WATER SUPPLY.

In the Salt River Valley the area at present in cultivation, which was estimated in 1900 to amount to 120,000 acres, is supplied with water by a number of canal systems that have been established by private capital. The United States Reclamation Service has recently undertaken the irrigation of this valley, and is now constructing a great impounding dam on the Salt River above Phoenix, which will increase the acreage under irrigation and insure an adequate supply of water at all times. The Government system is expected to provide water for irrigating 200,000 acres of land, including that which is now in cultivation.

^a In Egypt, however, the heavier soils are preferred for cotton culture.

In Yuma Valley only about 3,000 acres are now under irrigation throughout the year, all of this land being situated within a few miles of the town of Yuma. The water used in irrigating this area is pumped from the Colorado River. The United States Reclamation Service is now constructing an irrigation system, including a large diversion dam on the Colorado, which will provide gravity water for approximately 90,000 acres, four-fifths of which is located on the Arizona side of the river.

The Imperial Valley comprises approximately 500,000 acres of irrigable land in the United States, of which about 100,000 acres were actually under irrigation in 1905. This area is supplied with water from the Colorado River, the irrigation system being owned by a private corporation.

There are also a number of smaller areas along the Colorado and Gila rivers that are, or can be, irrigated with water from these rivers.

The total area that will be under ditch in the course of a few years in the Colorado River region can be conservatively estimated at 600,000 acres. During the last ten years the United States has imported an average amount of Egyptian cotton equivalent to about 120,000 American bales. Since the performance of the Mit Afifi variety at Yuma in 1907 gives good ground for anticipating yields of one to two bales to the acre in this region, it may be reasonably expected that one-fifth of this estimated total acreage will be able to supply the normal American demand for cotton of the Egyptian type.

Other districts in the Southwest where cotton can be grown under irrigation, but where the spring and fall temperatures are perhaps too low for the greatest success with Egyptian varieties, are the Pecos Valley in western Texas and eastern New Mexico and the southern part of the San Joaquin Valley in California.

EXPERIMENTS IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC AND GULF STATES.

Seed of the principal Egyptian varieties of cotton (Mit Afifi, Janovitch, Abbasi, and Ashmuni) has been several times imported by the Department of Agriculture and furnished to individual growers in various parts of the southern and southwestern United States. In 1900 and 1901 Mr. L. H. Dewey, in charge of fiber investigations, received numerous reports of trials of seed distributed by the Department of Agriculture which indicated that in the humid portion of the cotton belt little success could be anticipated with the Egyptian varieties. An excellent quality of fiber was produced at several localities, but the yields were generally small, due largely to the shortness of the season, which prevented many of the bolls from ripening. In many cases planting was delayed by wet weather in the spring, and

killing frosts occurred so early in the fall as to cut off a large part of the crop.^a

Dr. Herbert J. Webber^b experimented for several years with Egyptian varieties in the humid section of the United States, especially in South Carolina and Texas. His results also indicate that these varieties can not be profitably grown anywhere in the main cotton belt, at least not without adaptation through several years of acclimatization and selection.

PRELIMINARY EXPERIMENTS IN THE SOUTHWEST.

Experiments carried on in Arizona by the Territorial Agricultural Experiment Station and by individual farmers previous to 1902 pointed to the conclusion that heavy yields of Egyptian cotton of high quality could be obtained under irrigation in the warmer part of the arid region. The Abbasi, Mit Afifi, and Jannovitch varieties were grown by Prof. A. J. McClatchie on the station farm at Phoenix and were productive in the order named, Abbasi yielding at the rate of 460 pounds of lint to the acre. The Lowell Textile School reported that the Mit Afifi cotton grown at Phoenix, as compared with imported Mit Afifi, gave 4 per cent less waste and furnished thread that was 14 per cent stronger.

In 1902 preliminary experiments were made by Messrs. Webber and Kearney, of the Bureau of Plant Industry, at a number of localities in the Southwest as follows: Mit Afifi variety at San Antonio and Barstow, Tex., and at Carlsbad, N. Mex.; Jannovitch variety at Barstow, Tex., Carlsbad, N. Mex., Yuma, Ariz., and Calexico, Cal., and Ashmuni variety at Del Rio, Tex. In addition, Doctor Webber experimented in the same year with the Mit Afifi variety at Harts-ville, S. C., and at Houston and Brownsville, Tex.; with the Jannovitch variety at Denison, Tex., and with the Ashmuni variety at Danville, Ga., and Waco, Tex.

REPORTS OF EXPERTS ON THE FIBER PRODUCED IN 1902.

Fourteen samples, representing each Egyptian variety from each locality where it was grown in 1902, were submitted to seven American cotton buyers. The Jannovitch, grown at Calexico, Cal. (about

^a In Circular 26 of the Division of Botany, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1900, Mr. Dewey describes the results of experiments with Egyptian cotton in the United States up to that time. In these earlier experiments perhaps the most promising results were obtained by Mr. W. H. Wentworth at Floresville, near San Antonio, Tex., indicating that success is to be looked for west of the main cotton belt.

^b Doctor Webber has described his experiments in *Proceedings of the Seventh Annual Convention of the Southern Cotton Spinners' Association*, pp. 127-138, 1903.

60 miles west of Yuma), was highly commended by all of these experts. Two of them rated it highest among the fourteen samples, while four rated it as equal to any. Only one expert gave the preference to another of the fourteen samples.

The same series of samples was sent to Mr. William Getty, buyer of cotton at Alexandria, Egypt, for a firm at Providence, R. I.^a His report showed the Jannovitch fiber produced at Calexico to be the best of the lot. Mr. Getty said of it: "Length of fiber, quite 2 inches;^b strength very good; uniformity, good; very fine; rich in color; spinning quality very high; valuation at present market conditions [August 4, 1903], 21 to 22 cents per pound; is especially adapted for sewing cotton and for same purpose as Sea Island; is equal to the best Jannovitch in all respects and could not be improved upon."

The Lowell Textile School, to which eleven of these samples were also submitted, reported through Mr. O. L. Humphrey, head instructor in the cotton yarn department, on the Jannovitch grown at Calexico in the following terms: "Staple fully 1½ inches. Fiber very strong, fine, and even. Very small amount of unripe or short fiber. Cotton clean and in fine condition. Use for 60's carded, 70's and 80's combed."^c These are higher numbers of yarns than were furnished by any of the other samples and indicate a fiber of superior fineness. Mr. Humphrey adds, "An examination of the various samples would indicate that of the three varieties Jannovitch was decidedly the best."

Manufacturing tests of the eleven samples were made with great care by the Lowell Textile School.^d The cotton was "picked" (i. e., loosened in preparation for combing), combed, roved, and spun into yarn with the same degree of care and following the same methods used by manufacturers who handle corresponding grades of imported Egyptian cotton. Exact determinations were made of the amount of waste occurring during each process and of the strength of the yarn produced.

The waste includes moisture lost during the different manufacturing processes, dust, fragments of leaves, of bolls, and of seeds, and

^a Mr. Getty, who had had thirty years' experience in the cotton business in Egypt, also referred the samples to several experts in Liverpool, who confirmed his opinion.

^b This was a higher rating as to length than was given by any of the American experts, who placed the length at 1½ or 1¾ inches.

^c Long-staple cottons are usually combed as a preliminary to spinning, while short-staple cottons are generally carded.

^d The Lowell Textile School also submitted the samples to Mr. F. S. Kerrigan, expert of a manufacturing company at Lowell, Mass., who examined them independently and whose report corroborated Mr. Humphrey's to a remarkable degree.

short fiber. It is stated in percentages of the weights of the original samples. The total waste from the sample of Jannovitch grown at Calexico amounted to 23 per cent and from the sample of the same variety grown at Yuma to 26 per cent. The average for the eleven samples grown in the United States was 26 per cent, while a sample of imported Mit Afifi^a secured from a New England mill, which uses large quantities of this cotton, showed 27 per cent of total waste. The normal waste from imported cotton of this variety handled in the same way is estimated by Mr. Humphrey at about 24.2 per cent.

The manufacturing tests gave the following results, according to Mr. Humphrey's report:

The running of the samples in the roving processes was excellent. * * * The roving made was exceptionally strong and even. * * * The samples of "Jannovitch" [from Calexico, Cal.; Yuma, Ariz., and Denison, Tex.] ran in the spinning almost without a break and showed in this process remarkable strength. In order to compare the strength of the warp yarns of the various samples, 40 skeins of 120 yards each of every sample were reeled, the ends tied, broken, and weighed. The skein breaking was done on a power-driven yarn tester giving uniform speed.

The strength is stated in terms of the average weight in pounds that was required to break each skein of each sample. The samples of Jannovitch grown at Calexico and at Yuma proved to be decidedly the strongest of the eleven samples, 66 pounds having been the average weight required to break the former, and 74 pounds the latter, while the general average for the eleven American-grown samples was 55.5 pounds. For the sample of imported Egyptian the average breaking strength was 45.5 pounds. Taking the strength of Draper's Standard Warp as 100, the Jannovitch cotton grown at Calexico had in comparison a strength value of 146.5 and that grown at Yuma of 164.5, while the imported Mit Afifi had a strength value of only 101, which was surpassed by nearly all the American samples. This difference is explained by Mr. Humphrey as "largely due in many cases to the greater length of staple, although the strength and spinning qualities of the staple are unquestionably instrumental in producing this result."

The samples of Jannovitch grown at Calexico and Yuma were adversely criticised by Mr. Humphrey in respect to only one characteristic, i. e., the presence of a considerable amount of "nep" in the finished yarns. Mr. Humphrey says, however, that they "will compare fairly well in this respect with the bulk of the Egyptian yarn of this number which is being manufactured at the present time."

^a Mr. Humphrey says of this sample, "This variety (grade and length) is, however, considered a fair average Egyptian cotton and one that is very largely and generally used in this country."

Mr. Humphrey concludes his report as follows:

An examination of these American-grown Egyptian cottons and an inspection of the table of results as here given shows them to be, as a rule, long stapled, unusually strong, uniform and satisfactory in color, clean, and possessed of good spinning qualities. The per cent of short fibers compares very favorably with that of the imported article, but the amount of unripe fiber in some of the samples is excessive. This may perhaps be due to the fact that the cotton was raised in limited amounts, and in order to secure the greatest possible quantity of each, the picking was more thorough and included a larger per cent of the contents of the unripe or partially ripe bolls than would have, under ordinary conditions, been gathered. From the results of these tests we can naturally infer that there is a flattering future for American-grown Egyptian cotton, provided the standards can be maintained. This stock admits of the production of much finer numbers and better qualities of yarn than could be made from Upland, Texas, or Gulf cotton, and is inferior only to Sea Island cotton.

RESULTS OF ACCLIMATIZATION AND SELECTION IN THE SOUTHWEST.

In 1902 numerous selections were made in the test plats of the Mit Afifi and Jannovitch varieties at Barstow, Tex.; Carlsbad, N. Mex.; Yuma, Ariz., and Calexico, Cal. These selections were planted in 1903 at the same four localities on the "plant to the row" system. In addition a test plat of the Abbasi variety was grown at Carlsbad. In 1904 the selections of Mit Afifi and Jannovitch made in 1903 were planted only at Carlsbad and Yuma. In 1905 the selections made in 1904 were planted at the same two localities, but those at Yuma were lost soon after planting, as a result of the unprecedentedly high spring flood of the Colorado River. A large number of selections were made at Carlsbad, however, and with these the work has since been continued at Yuma.^a

The Abbasi variety was soon discarded because it too nearly resembles Sea Island cotton, with which it would undoubtedly compete in American markets. It was desired from the outset to secure a type of cotton for culture in the Southwest that would be distinctive of that region as compared with other cotton-growing sections in the United States. The best means of attaining this end appeared to be by acclimatizing the very distinct Mit Afifi and Jannovitch varieties, especially the former.

Numerous selections of Mit Afifi have been carried through five generations and have fully retained the distinguishing characters of the variety. Through a series of accidents the original selections from imported seed of the Jannovitch variety were lost, but certain selections from the more or less mixed seed of the Mit Afifi variety with which the experiments were begun have so nearly approximated the

^a In 1904 and 1905 the selections were made by Mr. L. L. Harter.

characters of Jannovitch that there seems to be no good reason for making new selections from imported seed of the latter.

Throughout the course of the experiments the plants have been grown under irrigation on the best land and with the best care as to irrigation, cultivation, etc., that circumstances admitted. It was not until last year, however, when the work was carried on in association with the Office of Western Agricultural Extension Investigations of this Bureau, that it became possible to raise the cotton under favorable conditions as regards cultivation and irrigation. Previous to 1907 these selections were exposed to so many vicissitudes—drought, alkali soils, inadequate cultivation, etc.—that there is good reason to believe that they are exceptionally hardy and well adapted to growing under conditions below the optimum for cotton culture in the region.

CHARACTERS OF THE PLANTS.

During the earlier years of the experiments it was extremely problematical whether Egyptian cotton would adapt itself to conditions in the Southwest. The plants made a very vigorous growth, but produced relatively few bolls, as is shown in Plate II, figure 1. These bolls matured so late in the season that many of them were cut off by frost before they opened. The opening of such bolls as ripened was generally very unsatisfactory, the valves of the locks remaining half erect instead of spreading horizontally, so that in picking the fiber had to be pulled out between the points.

Each year, however, a marked improvement in yield, earliness, and the degree of opening of the bolls manifested itself. In 1906, whether through acclimatization or selection or a combination of the two agencies, such a great improvement had been attained that there seemed little occasion for further anxiety on these scores. The Egyptian plants were still, it is true, much larger and ripened their fiber later than those of most Upland varieties grown under similar conditions, and their bolls remained small and pointed (Plate IV). All these, however, are characters inherent in the species of cotton (*Gossypium barbadense*) to which the Egyptian and Sea Island varieties belong, as distinguished from that which includes the American Upland varieties (*Gossypium hirsutum*). No amount of selection can be expected to entirely remove them. But, as compared with the performance of the plants in previous seasons, there had been a marked reduction in height and in the development of sterile branches (Plate III). The relative number of bolls produced was much larger and the fiber ripened much earlier than in any previous year. Furthermore, the bolls opened out flat, so that the cotton hung as loose as from bolls of Upland varieties.

In 1907 these characteristics had become practically uniform over the entire field (Plate I, frontispiece), not only in the selection rows but in the one-fourth-acre plats that were planted with seed from second-select plants of 1906 for yield tests and for experiments with different irrigation and cultivation methods. Before the middle of September the cotton was ready for the first picking. It was therefore at least a month earlier than was the case during the first three years of the experiments. The satisfactory opening of the bolls is shown in Plate IV, while Plate II, figure 2, illustrates the manner in which the ripe cotton hung loosely in the open bolls. Careful records of the time consumed in picking at Yuma in 1907 showed that it required only about one and one-half times as long to pick 100 pounds of seed cotton of the Mit Afifi Egyptian as of large-bolled Upland varieties, such as Triumph and Rogers Big Boll.

YIELD TESTS.

Yield tests of two Egyptian and five American Upland varieties of cotton were made at Yuma in 1907 on plats ranging in size from one-tenth to one-sixth acre. The results in pounds of seed cotton, calculated on the basis of 1 acre, are given in the following table:

TABLE VI.—*Results of yield tests of cotton varieties at Yuma, Ariz., in 1907, in pounds of seed cotton and estimated pounds of lint produced per acre.*

Variety.	Pounds of seed cotton per acre.		Estimated percentage of lint.	Estimated total yield of lint.
	Ripened before Dec. 1. ^a	Total yield.		
Mit Afifi (Egyptian).....	2,880	3,300	30	900
Jannovitch (Egyptian).....	1,851	2,228	30	668
Rogers Big Boll (short-staple Upland).....	2,897	2,975	34	1,011
Triumph (short-staple Upland).....	2,571	2,660	37	964
Sunflower (long-staple Upland).....	1,950	2,235	30	670
Southern Hope (long-staple Upland).....	2,572	3,052	30	915
Columbia (long-staple Upland).....	2,101	2,456	30	737

^a The amounts of seed cotton that ripened before December 1 are inserted because the autumn of 1907 was unusually warm, and it is possible that the figures in this column more nearly represent the yields that can normally be expected than do the total yields in 1907. The amounts that ripened after December 1 were estimated by dividing the total amount of seed cotton secured at the last picking by the number of days that had elapsed between this and the preceding picking and multiplying the result by the number of days between December 1 and the date of the last picking. The results are necessarily only approximate, since the amount of cotton that ripened daily must have decreased toward the end of the season.

^b A 50-pound sample of seed cotton of this lot was very carefully ginned on a roller gin and gave 33.5 per cent lint. On the other hand, a 200-pound sample yielded only 29.1 per cent. Thirty per cent would therefore appear to be a conservative estimate. Since in Egypt the Mit Afifi variety is said to give from 33 to 35 per cent of lint, there is every reason to believe that the percentage of lint of this variety in the Southwest can be materially improved over that obtained in 1907 at Yuma. The estimated percentage of lint for the other varieties in Table VI are based upon the average performance of these varieties in other localities.

Notwithstanding the fact that in two of the Upland varieties the percentage of lint is considerably higher than in Egyptian varieties, only one of them surpassed the Mit Afifi in productiveness, and that

to but an inconsiderable extent. The lower yield of the Jannovitch Egyptian as compared with the Mit Afifi is doubtless partly due to the fact that the Jannovitch plat in 1907 was planted with seed from plants grown in 1906 from an imported stock, while the stock of Mit Afifi had had the advantage of five years' acclimatization in the Southwest.

QUALITY OF THE FIBER.

During the earlier years of the experiment it seemed so essential to concentrate every effort upon combating sterility, late ripening, and imperfect opening of the bolls that in making the selections only secondary weight could be placed upon the quality of the fiber.

The Jannovitch variety, nevertheless, produced an excellent grade of fiber from the start. This was probably due to the recent origin of this variety, which had not had time to deteriorate seriously since it left the hands of the breeder. As has been stated, the fiber produced by this variety grown from imported seed at Calexico, Cal., and Yuma, Ariz., in 1902 was given a high rating by the Lowell Textile School and by expert cotton buyers in the United States and in Egypt. The Jannovitch variety was again grown from imported seed at Yuma in 1906, and the seed thus obtained was used in planting the yield-test plat of this variety in 1907. In this case also the American-grown product compared far more favorably with the average of the variety in Egypt than did the Mit Afifi variety during the first two or three years after it was introduced.

The fiber produced by the Mit Afifi variety during the earlier years of the experiments in the Southwest was of decidedly inferior quality. As compared with the best grades produced in Egypt, the lint was relatively short, in hardly any case reaching a full $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches. It was coarse and woolly and of a dead appearance, lacking the fine luster that is one of the most attractive qualities of high-grade Egyptian cotton. Very few plants showed even an approximation to the great strength that is one of the leading and most valuable characteristics of this type of cotton. In color also it left much to be desired, the brown tint being either nearly wanting or so irregularly distributed as to give the cotton a blotched appearance, as though artificially discolored.*

In 1905, the tendencies to sterility, late ripening, and imperfect opening of the bolls in the Mit Afifi variety having largely disap-

* From the fact that the results obtained during the first year or two of the experiments were much more satisfactory with the Jannovitch than with the Mit Afifi variety, it might be inferred that when first imported the former is better adapted than the latter to southwestern conditions. More likely, however, the Mit Afifi seed originally imported was of inferior quality. As heretofore stated, this variety is deteriorating in Egypt and becoming mixed with inferior sorts except where it is kept up by careful selection.

peared, it became possible to focus attention upon the characters of the fiber. As a result, in 1906 the fiber showed a marked improvement in all of its characters, and this was true to a still greater extent in 1907. In the latter year selection was made so rigorous that the best individual plant of 1903 would have failed to pass muster. In the 1 acre of breeding rows planted with seed from the first-select plants of 1906, the length averaged practically $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The thirty-eight first selections of individual plants made in 1907 had fiber of an average length of $1\frac{3}{8}$ inches, as compared with an average of $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches for the thirty-one first selections made in 1906. In other words, a gain of 4 per cent in length had been made in one generation. This is probably the maximum length to which the Mit Afifi type of Egyptian cotton should be bred to meet the demands of the existing market.

In all other characters—covering of the seed, uniformity of length on the same seed and in different bolls on the same plant, strength, color, fineness, and luster—the advance was so striking that it was in some cases difficult to realize that the plant of 1907 was only in the fifth generation of descent from its progenitor of 1902 (Pl. V).^a No one characteristic showed more gratifying progress than that of strength. While in 1903 the plant producing fiber that could not be broken easily between the fingers was a rare exception, in 1907 it was the general rule. Fiber of great fineness, soft and silky to the touch, was also the rule. Brown color characterized the fiber on the great majority of the plants, and was almost as general and pronounced as in any field seen in Egypt by one of the writers. In plants which preserved the Mit Afifi type the brown tint was conspicuous, especially when a mass of the fiber was examined, although much lighter than in the red-brown Peruvian and Nanking cottons. In plants that showed an approximation to the Jannovitch type, the fiber was of a delicate cream color, appearing almost white when compared with Mit Afifi, but showing clearly the brown tint when matched with American Upland fiber. The Jannovitch type was furthermore remarkable for the silky luster of the fiber.

Strength tests.—Careful tests of the strength of several samples of Egyptian cotton grown at Yuma in 1907 were made by the Office of Fiber Investigations of the Bureau of Plant Industry. The tests were made on a special fiber-testing machine. The samples submitted were as follows: No. 1, Mit Afifi, from a plat which received eight irrigations after planting; No. 2, Mit Afifi, from a plat which received only one irrigation after planting; No. 3, Mit Afifi, from a plat which received three irrigations after planting; No. 4, the average of the first picking from seven individual selected plants of

^a During each year of the experiments combed-out seeds of every selection have been preserved as a record of the progress made in breeding.

Mit Affi in the breeding rows which had received four irrigations after planting; No. 5, the average of the later pickings from the same seven selections. Jannovitch from the yield-test plat, which was irrigated twice after planting, was also tested. The Mit Affi had in every case been grown five years in the Southwest, while the Jannovitch was from that grown at Yuma in 1906 from newly imported seed.

In order to permit a comparison of the strength of the Arizona-grown Egyptian samples described above with that of cotton of other varieties and from other sources, the Office of Fiber Investigations also furnished the results of a series of tests made by Mr. Frederick J. Tyler upon different Upland and Sea Island varieties, as well as upon three varieties of Egyptian cotton. All of these were grown by Mr. Tyler without irrigation at Waco and Terrell, Tex., with the exception of the two samples of Southern Hope (long-staple Upland). The latter were produced under irrigation at Yuma, Ariz., in 1907.

The results as stated in the following table represent the average of the weights in grams required to break each of twenty individual fibers from each sample:

TABLE VII.—*Breaking strength of samples of Egyptian and other cottons grown under irrigation in Arizona and without irrigation in Central Texas.*

Type of cotton.	Variety.	Where grown.	Number of irrigations.	Breaking strength.
				<i>Grams.</i>
Egyptian.....	Mit Affi, No. 1.....	Arizona.....	8	4.6
	Mit Affi, No. 2.....	Arizona.....	1	6.5
	Mit Affi, No. 3.....	Arizona.....	3	6.4
	Mit Affi, No. 4.....	Arizona.....	4	5.9
	Mit Affi, No. 5.....	Arizona.....	4	6.2
	Mit Affi.....	Texas.....	None.	4.5
	Jannovitch.....	Arizona.....	2	6.4
	Jannovitch.....	Texas.....	None.	4.0
	Ashmuni.....	Texas.....	None.	5.5
	Ashmuni.....	Texas.....	None.	3.5
Upland long-staple.....	Allen.....	Texas.....	None.	3.5
	Boozer.....	Texas.....	None.	3.4
	Florodora.....	Texas.....	None.	3.1
	Griffin.....	Texas.....	None.	3.5
	Peeler.....	Texas.....	None.	4.1
	Sunflower.....	Texas.....	None.	3.4
	Southern Hope, No. 1.....	Arizona.....	8	6.0
	Southern Hope, No. 2.....	Arizona.....	1	5.0
	Culpepper.....	Texas.....	None.	5.1
	Cook Improved.....	Texas.....	None.	7.0
Upland short-staple.....	Drake.....	Texas.....	None.	4.5
	Excelsior.....	Texas.....	None.	6.3
	Jones Improved.....	Texas.....	None.	5.2
	King.....	Texas.....	None.	4.8
	Mortgage Lifter.....	Texas.....	None.	5.9
	Russell.....	Texas.....	None.	5.5
	Truitt.....	Texas.....	None.	6.0
	Truitt.....	Texas.....	None.	6.0
	Truitt.....	Texas.....	None.	6.0
	Truitt.....	Texas.....	None.	6.0

In regard to the Egyptian cottons grown under irrigation at Yuma it is interesting to note the relative weakness of the fiber in Mit Affi sample No. 1, from a plat that was excessively irrigated, as compared with samples 2 and 3, from plats that received only one and three irrigations, respectively, after planting. The selections

(samples 4 and 5) were irrigated four times after the seed was put in. In the case of the selections an unexpected result is the greater strength shown by the later pickings (sample 5) as compared with the first pickings (sample 4) from the same individual plants. In Egypt, on the other hand, the fiber from the first pickings is reputed to be generally stronger than that which is picked later in the season.

It will be observed that the long-staple Upland or Peeler varieties are generally very inferior in strength to the short-staple Uplands. A notable exception is the Southern Hope, which was grown under irrigation at Yuma. It is rather remarkable that in this case sample No. 1, which received eight irrigations after planting, is decidedly stronger than sample No. 2, which was watered only once after the seed was put in. On the other hand, the Mit Afifi Egyptian, which received eight irrigations at Yuma (sample No. 1 in Table VII), was decidedly inferior in strength to that which was irrigated only one to four times (samples 2 to 5). The Mit Afifi and Jannovitch Egyptian varieties, grown under rainfall in central Texas from imported seed, appear to be deficient in strength as compared with the same varieties under irrigation in Arizona.

From the manufacturer's point of view, tests that are based upon the breaking point of individual fibers are not alone satisfactory indicators of the strength of a given sample of cotton. They should be supplemented by tests of the breaking strength of the thread, which depends not only upon the strength but the length and fineness of the individual fiber, the last character determining the number of fibers which can be spun into a thread of given diameter. But when the great fineness and the satisfactory length, as well as the great strength of the individual fibers of the Egyptian cotton produced in Arizona in 1907 are taken into consideration, we can be reasonably certain that they will furnish a very strong thread.^a

Comparison of the fiber from different pickings.—In view of the belief prevailing in Egypt that fiber from the first picking is decidedly superior to that from the second and third, the products of the first and of the later pickings from some of the best selected plants of the Mit Afifi variety at Yuma in 1907 were carefully compared. In point of strength, as has been noted, the fiber from the later pickings, which were taken together, was found to be uniformly somewhat superior to that from the first, but in the other characters no pronounced difference was observed, except that in two or three cases the length was slightly inferior in the later pickings. In color the later pickings were in all cases equal to the first.

^a The results of the strength tests of yarns spun from the Jannovitch cotton grown at Calexico and Yuma in 1902 support this belief.

OPINIONS OF EXPERTS ON THE FIBER PRODUCED IN 1907.

Small samples of the acclimatized Arizona-grown Egyptian cotton produced in 1907 were submitted to 22 American buyers and manufacturers of this type of cotton, of whom 18 reported their opinions of its quality and 11 furnished estimates of its value at current market prices. The prices varied considerably, ranging from 18 to 26 cents a pound, the average of all the estimates obtained being 20.6 cents. At the time when these estimates were furnished (February 15 to March 7, 1908) American Middling Upland cotton was selling on the Boston market for 12 to 12½ cents a pound, and imported Egyptian cotton for 12 to 15½ cents ("low grades"), 14 to 18 cents ("current grades"), 16½ to 19 cents ("good grades"), and 17½ to 21 cents ("high grades").^a The Arizona-grown fiber would therefore be classed with the high grades of imported Egyptian cotton.

The length of the Arizona-grown fiber was placed at slightly less than 1½ inches (average of 10 estimates)—hence superior to most grades of Mit Afifi but inferior to the best grades of Jannovitch. As to evenness or uniformity of length, all but 1 out of 11 opinions were very favorable, 2 of the experts pronouncing the Arizona product superior in this respect to imported Jannovitch.

In respect to fineness, the consensus of opinion appeared to be that the fiber is somewhat inferior to Jannovitch but superior to Mit Afifi. In regard to the strength of the Arizona-grown fiber, all the reports were satisfactory, most of the experts considering it equal to that of imported Jannovitch, while one manufacturer reported it as "rather better." The color was pronounced to be lighter than the best grades of Mit Afifi, but darker than Jannovitch. Only 1 out of the 14 experts who rendered an opinion on the color of the samples criticised it as "uneven." The luster of the Arizona-grown fiber was generally regarded as somewhat inferior to that of imported Egyptian. The "cling," or "barb," an important quality in making strong thread, was commented upon favorably by the two manufacturers who mentioned this point. Opinions differed somewhat as to the freedom of the samples from waste, the consensus being apparently that in this respect the Arizona cotton was similar to all but the best grades of imported Egyptian. As to absence of "nep," the opinions were on the whole decidedly favorable.

The manufacturers and buyers who examined the Arizona-grown fiber were practically unanimous in stating that it could be satisfactorily substituted for corresponding grades of imported Egyptian cotton.

^a Prices quoted on the Boston market as given in the *Commercial Bulletin of Boston*, February 15, 22, and 29, and March 7, 1908.

It is evident from the reports received that the experts differed as to the variety of cotton represented by the samples, some making their comparison with Mit Afifi and some with Jannovitch. A summing up of the opinions received indicates that the Arizona cotton is exactly intermediate between these two varieties in almost every character. This is not surprising, since the samples were taken from the yield-test plats of 1907, which were grown from seed obtained from the "second-select" plants in the breeding rows of 1906 and mixed together. As has already been pointed out, the seed with which the breeding experiments were commenced at Yuma, although imported under the name of Mit Afifi, produced many plants which approximated the Jannovitch variety in the quality of their fiber. During the last two years superior plants typical of each of these varieties have been selected, and it is expected that in a short time there will be available a supply of pure seed of both Mit Afifi and Jannovitch Egyptian cottons thoroughly adapted to the climate of the Colorado River region.

TYPES PRODUCED.

To sum up, two well-marked types of Egyptian cotton, both developed from mixed seed that was imported under the name of Mit Afifi, have been carried through five generations of acclimatization and selection and have now reached a high degree of uniformity and adaptability to conditions in the southwestern United States. These are (1) the Mit Afifi type, having fiber that averages $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length, very strong, soft, and fine, decidedly crinkly, and of a light-brown color; (2) the Jannovitch type, with fiber averaging $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches in length, smoother, silkier, and more lustrous than the Mit Afifi, and of a very delicate cream color. The latter type may be regarded as almost intermediate in most of its characters between Mit Afifi Egyptian on the one hand and Sea Island on the other.

IRRIGATION EXPERIMENTS.

In order to determine the effect upon the yield and quality of the fiber produced by different amounts of irrigation water applied at different intervals, a series of plats was planted to Mit Afifi Egyptian cotton at Yuma in 1907.

The soil of these plats was fairly uniform, being a sandy loam on the surface with rather open sand in the subsoil. This land had not been in crop for about ten months previous to planting the cotton and had not been irrigated, so that it was very dry. It was plowed and prepared for planting early in March, 1907, was thoroughly irrigated by flooding on March 23, and the cotton was planted five days later. No facilities were at hand for measuring the amount of water applied at each irrigation, but the effort was always made to irrigate

each of the plats for about the same length of time with the same head of water. In each case the land was cultivated with either a 5-shovel or a harrow-tooth cultivator as soon as possible after irrigation, although in the case of plat 5 cultivation was not possible after the later irrigations, owing to the large size of the mature plants.

The table which follows gives the dates on which each plat was irrigated from the time the cotton was planted until the last picking was made:

TABLE VIII.—Numbers and dates of waterings given irrigation experiment plats at Yuma in 1907.

Dates of irrigations.	Plat 1.	Plat 2.	Plat 3.	Plat 4.	Plat 5.
May 9.....	X		X	X	X
May 25.....		X			X
July 3.....			X		X
July 15.....		X			X
July 25.....					X
August 8.....					X
August 24.....			X		X
September 12.....		X		X	X
Total number.....	1	3	2	2	8

In Table IX are given the dates of each picking on each plat, the number of pounds of seed cotton (calculated on the basis of 1 acre) secured at each picking, and the percentage of the entire yield of each plat represented by the corresponding picking and those previous to it.

TABLE IX.—Yields of seed cotton (in pounds per acre and percentages of the total yield) secured on the irrigation experiment plats at Yuma in 1907.*

Dates of pickings.	Plat 1.		Plat 2.		Plat 3.		Plat 4.		Plat 5.	
	Seed cotton.	Per cent of total.	Seed cotton.	Per cent of total.	Seed cotton.	Per cent of total.	Seed cotton.	Per cent of total.	Seed cotton.	Per cent of total.
September 19.....	Lbs.		Lbs. 688	20.7	Lbs.		Lbs.		Lbs.	
September 22.....					470	17.6	664	31.9		
September 23.....										
September 24.....	451	30.6							832	12.2
October 9.....										
October 11.....			567	37.7						
October 19.....	291	50.3			729	41.9	448	53.4		
October 22.....									535	31.8
October 23.....										
October 25.....			567	54.8						
October 28.....	402	77.6								
November 5.....					584	66.7			391	46.3
November 6.....							308	68.1		
November 12.....			706	76						
November 22.....									772	74.7
December 20.....	330	100			891	100	664	100	698	100
December 23.....			802	100						
Total.....	1,474		3,330		2,674		2,079		2,723	

* In the columns headed "Seed cotton" are given the pounds per acre obtained on each plat at each picking. In the columns headed "Per cent of total" are given the accumulated percentages of the total yield from each plat that had been secured up to the date of the respective picking.

It will also be interesting, as a measure of the degree to which ripening was hastened or retarded by the treatment given the different plats, to note the average number of large but green and still unopened bolls per plant remaining after the last picking. These were as follows: Plat 1, 0; plat 2, 4; plat 3, 21; plat 4, 25; plat 5, 23.

These plats were not planted until March 28, 1907, although if the condition of the weather alone had governed the date of planting the seed could have been put in several weeks earlier. Plat 2 was planted as a yield-test plat, but the treatment it received produced such excellent results that it is included here for comparison.

On plat 1, which was irrigated only once after planting, ripening was hastened, half of the total product having been harvested at the first two pickings. While the yield from this plat was light compared with that from the others, yet it amounted to nearly one bale per acre. The light irrigation that was given allowed the soil to remain so dry during the greater part of the summer that Bermuda grass could make little growth.

Plat 2 was irrigated three times and plats 3 and 4 twice after planting. The results from these three plats show that the longer the second irrigation was postponed the smaller was the total yield. Plat 2, which received its second irrigation six weeks earlier than plat 3 and nearly nine weeks earlier than plat 4, yielded much more heavily than the others. The first four pickings were earlier on this plat than on any of the others. It will be noted that the first irrigation was given two weeks later on plat 2 than on plats 3 and 4, which may also have had something to do with the heavier yield on plat 2. On this plat the growth induced by the irrigation on July 15, 1907, had nearly all matured when the last picking was made. The irrigation which this plat received on September 12 did not induce as much new growth as did the last irrigation given plats 3 and 4. The late growth on plats 3 and 4 did not fully mature its bolls before a frost occurred, as is indicated by the large number of green bolls remaining after the last picking was made.

Plat 5, which was irrigated eight times after planting, ripened its fiber later than any of the others, as is well shown by the fact that the percentage of the total yield represented by the first two pickings was much smaller than in the other plats, and by the high average number of unripe bolls that remained on the plants after the last picking. The first picking on this plat, although taken sixteen days later than on any of the others, yielded only 12 per cent of the total product. Notwithstanding, the total yield from this plat was second only to that from plat 2, there having been no killing frost in 1907 until the middle of December. In ordinary years cotton irrigated thus heavily would be in danger of a reduction of yield through

failure of many of the bolls to ripen before a severe frost occurs. The growth on plat 5 was very rank and picking was correspondingly difficult. The fiber from this plat was only about 70 per cent as strong as that from plats 1 and 2, which received, respectively, only one and three irrigations after planting. In other characters of the fiber no difference could be detected except that the color was slightly less pronounced on the excessively irrigated plat.

It would be unsafe to generalize concerning the results of experiments conducted during only one season, especially as the date of the first killing frost was unusually late in 1907. It may be said, however, that on sandy loam soils in the Colorado River region heavy yields of Egyptian cotton are possible with very moderate irrigation provided the soil is thoroughly cultivated after each watering and that apparently little benefit is obtained from the application of water after the 1st of September. Further experiments are necessary to determine accurately the amount of water that will produce the best results on the various types of soils occurring in the region.

SUGGESTIONS AS TO CULTURAL METHODS.

Cotton has been so little grown under irrigation in the United States that much remains to be learned about producing the crop under these conditions. The following suggestions are based partly upon the limited experience that has so far been obtained in the Southwest and partly upon our knowledge of the methods followed in Egypt. As has already been pointed out, however, the Egyptian system of growing cotton can not be closely followed in the United States, owing to the great difference in the labor conditions of the two countries.

IRRIGATION.

The principal difference between cotton culture in the arid region of the United States and in the South Atlantic and Gulf States is the almost perfect regulation of the water supply that is possible under irrigation. This enables the farmer to control the condition of the soil, so that it need never be wet at times when plowing, planting, cultivating, picking, and other cultural operations should be performed. This and the almost total absence of rain during the growing season make it much easier to plan and carry out the farm work. The expense of irrigating is more than compensated for by these advantages and by the fact that there is little danger of loss or damage from rainy weather.

In all irrigated districts where water is abundant there is a tendency to irrigate too frequently and to cultivate too little. The practice of excessive irrigation instead of cultivation is always objection-

able, as it tends to leach the soil of its plant food, injures its mechanical condition, and encourages the growth of weeds. In cotton culture it has the further disadvantage of causing an overproduction of wood and a retarded ripening of the bolls. The conservation of the soil moisture by thorough tillage after each irrigation is in every way a more economical practice.

The first essential to successful irrigation is thorough leveling of the land. For a cultivated crop like cotton a fall of 2 inches to every 600 feet is sufficient in most soils. The frequency with which irrigation should be given depends largely upon the character of the soil. Heavy loams and clays have of course a high water-holding capacity and do not need to be irrigated as often as sandy loams. On heavy land, if well tilled, one or two irrigations after planting are sufficient to mature a crop of cotton properly, while on the very light soils three to five irrigations may be required.^a

Irrigation by flooding requires the least labor and gives the most satisfactory results. In Egypt, where an abundance of very cheap labor can be had, furrow irrigation is practiced, but in this country the cost of labor would be almost prohibitive, even if it were found otherwise desirable to adopt the furrow system. The quantity of water given cotton at any one irrigation should be sufficient to insure penetration of the soil to a considerable depth. In most cases flooding to a depth of about 6 inches suffices.

Cotton is a comparatively drought-resistant plant, which is probably at least partly due to its deep rooting habit. It has been found that in the rather light soils of the Yuma Valley, if good cultivation is given, the roots of this plant will penetrate to a depth of 6 to 8 feet. Hence, cotton requires less frequent irrigation than shallow-rooted crops. It has been observed, however, that the Egyptian varieties show the effect of drought sooner than Upland cottons.

Since the amount of water that will produce the best results and the frequency with which irrigations should be given depend largely upon the character of the soil and the thoroughness of the tillage, it is difficult to give precise directions on these points. In general, cotton should be irrigated as little as possible after it has begun flowering. Heavy irrigation in the latter part of the summer, especially during very dry, hot weather, results in a dropping of the squares^b

^a In Egypt, as has already been noted, 10 irrigations are ordinarily given between the date of planting and that of the first picking. It must be remembered, however, that as cotton is planted in Egypt there are 10 times as many plants to the acre as in the experiments at Yuma. If closer planting is practiced in the Southwest, more water will probably be required.

^b The term "square" is applied to the unopened bud of the cotton flower with its inclosing bracts.

and young bolls. It is also likely to stimulate a late growth, so that there is danger that many bolls will be caught by frost before reaching maturity.

PREPARATION OF THE LAND.

Thorough preparation of the soil is necessary to insure perfect germination. If no winter or green-manure crops are grown on the land it should be plowed in the fall, so as to expose the greatest possible amount of surface to the air during the winter months. Plowing to a depth of 6 to 10 inches is advisable in all types of soil, as it encourages the development of a deep root system. The work should be done when the surface soil is not dry and baked, otherwise difficulty will be experienced in obtaining a mellow, well-pulverized seed bed.

If a winter crop is grown it should be removed and the ground plowed as early in the spring as possible. It is essential to turn under green-manure crops several weeks before planting cotton, in order that they may decompose somewhat before the seed is put in. Just before giving the first irrigation in the spring the land should be well harrowed and gone over once with a leveling drag, in order to remove the inequalities caused by plowing. In the latter part of February or early in March the land should be thoroughly flooded, so that every part of it is covered to a depth of 3 or 4 inches. Unless this is done germination will not be uniform and the stand will be imperfect. As soon after this first irrigation as possible the land should be double-disked and then worked over with a smoothing harrow. On some soils it may be necessary to follow the smoothing harrow with the leveling drag. These operations, if carried out at the proper time, will insure a loose, mellow, and moist seed bed over the entire field. Under these conditions, if good seed is used, germination will take place in five or six days and a uniform stand will be obtained.

PLANTING.

In the Southwest cotton should be planted early. Without exception the plantings made at Yuma between March 15 and March 30 gave larger returns than later plantings of the same varieties. Seed that was put in early produced plants that branched well near the ground and made a more determinate growth than those that came from seed planted near the end of April. The latter came up readily and grew rapidly, but the plants were spindling, the yield light, and the crop late in maturing. Periods of cold weather are likely to follow early planting and to retard the upward growth of the young plants, but during these periods a good root system is being developed and when warm weather comes on later such plants make a more satisfactory growth than those from later plantings. Of course, the

proper time for planting in any locality will depend largely upon the normal date of the last frost in the spring. Cotton seed should be put in as soon as the danger of killing frost is past. In the Colorado River region it is probable that in ordinary seasons planting can be done to advantage between March 1 and March 15, and in the Salt and Gila valleys between March 15 and March 31.

The proper distance for planting Egyptian cotton in the Southwest varies somewhat according to the nature of the soil, but it is always much greater than that used in Egypt for the same varieties or in the southern United States for Upland varieties. Experiments in the South indicate that the yield increases as the space assigned to each plant approaches a perfect square. Egyptian varieties, however, grow more rankly and require more space than any Upland variety. Moreover the weight of the bolls at the ends of the long branches bears them almost to the ground and makes the last cultural operations and the picking so difficult that it is advisable to have the rows much farther apart than the hills. A distance of 6 feet between the rows, with the plants 3 feet apart in the row, which gives each plant 18 square feet, produced very satisfactory results at Yuma during the past season. A yield at the rate of 990 pounds of fiber per acre was obtained from the Mit Afifi variety planted at this distance, which requires only 5 or 6 pounds of seed per acre. It is possible that very close planting in the row may tend to check the luxuriance of growth of this type of cotton without decreasing the yield.

As the acclimatization of Egyptian cotton progresses, the proper planting distance can doubtless be very materially decreased. The average distance in Egypt for the same varieties of cotton is 32 inches between the rows, with the hills 16 inches apart in the row and with two plants to the hill. These distances allow each plant 1.8 square feet of ground space, or just one-tenth that given at Yuma. With this planting distance there would be 24,000 plants per acre or ten times the number present when the distance is that adopted last year at Yuma. The average amount of seed used per acre in Egypt is 45 pounds. The great difference between the planting distance generally used in Egypt and that which has so far given the best results at Yuma indicates that much allowance must be made for the effect of further acclimatization in reducing the size of the plants. Moreover, additional experiments are necessary in order to determine the most profitable planting distance for Egyptian cotton on different types of soil in the Southwest.^a

^a It is proposed to test different planting distances at Yuma during the season of 1908.

If the soil has been well prepared and is free from Bermuda grass, the ordinary one-horse cotton drill is the best implement for planting; otherwise, hand planting must be resorted to in order that the seed may be placed in moist soil.

The proper depth depends upon the character of the soil and the date of planting. The earlier the seed is put in, the shallower should be the depth. If cold weather follows deep early planting, the seed is likely to rot in the ground, or if germination takes place the seedlings will not have sufficient vitality to force their way through the soil. In Egypt the approved depth is 2 or 3 inches. At Yuma, however, although the soils are lighter than most Egyptian cotton soils and planting has heretofore been done at a later date than is usually the case in Egypt, a depth of only $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches gave excellent results, the seed having germinated readily and the plants having become well established in a very short time.

The cotton plant, when once established, will survive rather adverse climatic conditions, but during the first two weeks after germination it is sensitive to excessive moisture, heat, and cold. The seedlings of Egyptian cotton, however, are hardier than those of Upland cotton and recover more quickly from the effects of cold weather. Dry planting followed by a flooding, which is a frequent procedure in growing grain under irrigation, should never be practiced with cotton. The water packs the soil so firmly about the seed that a poor stand is sure to result. Very little moisture is required to germinate cotton seed provided the soil is lightly firmed about the seed at the time of planting.

When the cotton drill is used in planting, the seed should be dropped about 6 inches apart in the row if the plants are afterwards to be thinned to a distance of 3 feet. If the distance after thinning is to be less than 3 feet, the seeds should be dropped correspondingly closer. When the plants are 6 inches high, or soon after the third leaf appears, they should be "chopped" out to the desired distance with a hoe. If hand planting is practiced, care must be taken in thinning the hills to avoid injury to the plants that are left standing. The difficulty in doing this satisfactorily is one of the principal objections to planting in hills.

In selecting seed for planting only ripe, heavy seed that shows a high percentage of germination^a should be chosen. Egyptian cotton seed that has been grown in the Southwest for several years is in every way preferable for planting to seed newly imported from Egypt, as it is better adapted to the changed climatic conditions. Plants from

^a A convenient method for testing the viability of cotton or other seeds is to place 100 seeds between two pieces of moist cotton cloth and inclose the cloth and seed between two plates. The number of seeds that germinate constitutes the percentage of viability.

such seed have a more determinate growth, yield better, and their bolls open more satisfactorily than those from unacclimated seed.

CULTIVATING.

If the ground has been well irrigated and then thoroughly pulverized previous to planting, the plants will reach a height of 8 to 10 inches before a second irrigation is required. Withholding water for some time after planting encourages the development of a deep root system. On the other hand, frequent irrigation at this time encourages the growth of lateral roots close to the surface of the soil, which is undesirable, as plants possessing a root development of this character are the first to suffer in case there is a shortage of water later in the season. Thorough cultivation, so as to establish a dust mulch 2 or 3 inches deep, should follow every irrigation just as soon as the soil is dry enough to be tilled. Conservation of soil moisture by cultivation is cheaper and more satisfactory than frequent irrigation.

On light soils a 14-harrow-tooth cultivator is the best implement to use in forming a dust mulch. On heavy soils a five or seven shoveled cultivator with a pulverizing attachment, followed by the harrow-toothed cultivator, will produce the same results. It is advisable to use the scuffle-hoe attachment for the five-shoveled cultivator in case the field is weedy. If the land is free from weeds, the only hand work necessary will be that required in thinning out the plants and loosening the soil around them after the first irrigation, while they are small and tender. The experience so far obtained at Yuma would indicate that cultivation should cease soon after the plants begin blossoming.

PICKING.

In localities where frost occurs early in the fall, the growing period can be shortened by giving the last irrigation at a correspondingly early date. If this is done, the plants will set their bolls and mature their crop much earlier than when an abundance of water is given throughout the growing season. In localities where the season is comparatively short and it is consequently necessary to restrict the growing period of cotton, closer planting is also to be recommended.

If the cultural methods above described are followed, cotton planted in the Colorado River region in the middle of March should be ready for the first picking by the middle of September. Egyptian cotton has a less determinate growth than the Upland varieties and matures its crop during a longer period and at a lower temperature than the latter. This necessitates a larger number of pickings than for most Upland varieties. The comparatively rank growth of the Egyptian varieties, making work between the rows more difficult, their habit

of bearing the bolls at the ends of the branches, thus bending the latter to the ground, and the smaller size of the bolls make picking slower and hence more expensive than with Upland varieties. It is probably safe to estimate that the average cotton picker can gather Egyptian cotton about two-thirds as rapidly as Upland.^a

In 1907, when the first killing frost did not occur until after the middle of December, four and on some plats even five pickings of Egyptian cotton were made at Yuma. But if the crop is grown on a commercial scale, it is probable that, as in Egypt, only three, or at most four, pickings will ordinarily be made. It is, however, especially important with Egyptian varieties not to leave the cotton unpicked for any considerable length of time after the bolls open, as exposure to the weather damages the fiber. In picking, great care should be taken to keep the cotton as free as possible from fragments of leaves, flowers, bolls, etc. In grading Egyptian cotton much importance is attached to its freedom from "trash," and the price obtained largely depends upon the cleanness of the fiber.

No very satisfactory and economical method has yet been found for removing the stalks that remain in the field after the last picking. The vigorous growth of Egyptian cotton plants makes the methods used with Upland cottons in the South impracticable. Probably as good a way as any is to cut out the plants by hand and throw them into piles; one man can do this work at the rate of an acre a day. Until some economical use is found for the stalks, they can best be disposed of by burning them in the field as soon as they are dry. If there are many immature bolls and green leaves remaining after the last picking, the field can be profitably pastured by dairy stock or beef cattle.

MACHINERY REQUIRED.

No expensive field machinery is necessary in Egyptian cotton culture. When the land has once been leveled, the only implements needed by the individual farmer are an ordinary two-horse walking plow or disk plow, a smoothing harrow, a homemade leveling drag, a two or four horse disk harrow, and a one-horse cotton drill. With the exception of the last, all of these implements are to be found on the average irrigated farm.

In order to prepare the product for the market, more costly machinery, i. e., gins for separating the fiber and presses for baling it, will be required. These can be more advantageously purchased and operated by a cooperative association of cotton growers than

^a Mr. Robert Viewlg, who grew Egyptian cotton at Godwinsville, Ga., in 1900, reported to Mr. L. H. Dewey, of the Bureau of Plant Industry, that the negroes in his vicinity preferred to pick Egyptian cotton at the rate of 75 cents a hundred pounds to Upland cotton at 50 cents a hundred pounds.

by individual farmers. The long fiber of Egyptian cotton can not be separated without injury by the saw gins used for short-staple Upland cottons. Roller gins, such as are used in Egypt and in the Sea Island district in South Carolina and Georgia, will be necessary. A good roller gin, capable of turning out 60 to 100 pounds of fiber an hour, costs at the factory about \$150.^a It will be found more economical to set up a battery of from four to eight gins than to install power to run a single gin. As a rule, in Egypt much greater care is used in ginning than in the United States, and the fiber as it reaches the manufacturer is much cleaner and more attractive looking. If this type of cotton is grown in the southwestern United States, the chances of marketing it advantageously will be much increased by careful ginning.

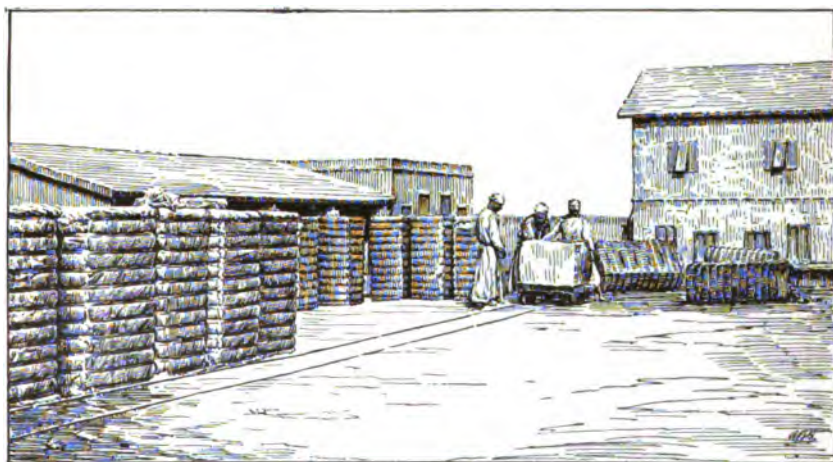


Fig. 2.—Finished Egyptian cotton bales at a ginnery at Kafr ez Zayat, Egypt.

A single-box screw press having an hourly capacity of $1\frac{1}{2}$ bales (hence about the capacity of 10 roller gins) can be purchased at the factory for \$160. A revolving double-box press with an hourly capacity of 4 to 5 bales costs from \$300 to \$500 at the factory. These presses will turn out ordinary rough bales in sufficiently good shape for shipment to one of the southern cities where compresses are operated. At the outset, presses of this description would probably answer the purpose of southwestern cotton growers.

We must not, however, lose sight of the fact that buyers and manufacturers of Egyptian cotton are accustomed to receiving it in the very compact, well-made bales shown in text figure 2. The care with

^aAnother roller gin that is much used in the Sea Island district is stated to have a capacity of $1\frac{1}{2}$ bales daily. While the saw gin does much more rapid work than the roller gin, it would be almost impossible to market long-staple fiber if ginned on the former machine.

which it is put up has contributed not a little to enhance the reputation of this type of cotton. Almost without exception American users of Egyptian cotton have mentioned the care with which it is ginned and baled as one of their chief reasons for preferring it. If Egyptian cotton culture were to be undertaken on a commercial scale in the Southwest, growers in that section would obtain a great advantage by securing, from the outset, a reputation for care in putting up their product equal to that enjoyed by the Egyptians. To accomplish this a compress will be needed in order to make the bales turned out by the gin presses still more compact. If a compress were located in the region where the cotton is grown, so that the much less bulky compressed bales could be shipped from the point of production, a considerable saving in freight rates would doubtless result. In view of the long haul to a seaport that will be necessary, this is a very important consideration and should not be overlooked by those who may contemplate growing cotton in the Colorado River region.

The compresses ordinarily seen in the cotton belt are large establishments located at important shipping centers and costing \$35,000 to \$50,000. There is, however, a compress manufactured in the United States that costs only \$3,800, delivered on the cars at the factory. It is calculated that set up at any point on the railway in southern Arizona or southeastern California it would cost not more than \$5,500. This compress is advertised as turning out a bale which is 55 by 21 by 20 to 26 inches in dimensions^a and which weighs approximately 500 pounds. The daily capacity is said to be from 100 to 125 bales (in a twenty-four-hour day). Such a compress should be able to handle all the cotton produced in a large community. The decreased bulk of the bales, which would result in a saving of freight rates, and their attractive appearance, which would facilitate sales to buyers and manufacturers of this type of cotton, should be ample warrant for installing such a compress in any community where Egyptian cotton growing is seriously undertaken.

ROTATIONS.

The alluvial soils of the Salt, Yuma, and Imperial valleys are for the most part well supplied with all the mineral elements necessary for plant growth, but are often deficient in humus or organic matter, which is essential in maintaining a proper physical condition. Furthermore, cotton, if planted continuously on any soil, will gradually deplete its fertility, being especially exhaustive of nitrogen. In order, therefore, to maintain a sufficient nitrogen content and to in-

^a This bale would therefore be about as bulky in proportion to the weight of its contents as the Egyptian and about two-thirds as bulky as the ordinary American compressed bale.

crease the supply of humus, leguminous crops should be grown in rotation. For a long-period rotation there is nothing better than alfalfa. But if it is desired to grow cotton at frequent intervals on the same land, winter annual or green manure crops must be introduced. Berseem (Alexandrian clover) is extensively used for this purpose in Egypt, and experience indicates that it will do well as a winter crop under irrigation in the Colorado River region. The productiveness of this clover and the great number of nitrogen-bearing nodules that develop on its roots make it an excellent plant to use in rotation with cotton and with cultivated summer crops in general. Other leguminous plants, some of which will probably prove valuable as soiling or green-manure crops, are being tested in the region. If a proper rotation system is adopted at the outset, commercial fertilizers will probably not be required in this region for many years in connection with cotton raising.

LABOR CONDITIONS.

The greatest obstacle to cotton culture in the Southwest at present is the difficulty of procuring labor for picking. In this connection it may be stated that picking is the only cultural operation that costs more for Egyptian than for Upland cotton. The cost of preparing the land, planting, irrigating, and cultivating is the same for both kinds. Hence, the total expense to the acre in producing Egyptian cotton is very little more than in producing Upland cotton.

The labor conditions in the Colorado River region are unusual, owing to its remoteness from labor centers. Ordinary farm labor often commands \$2 a day or \$1.50 with board. Cotton picking, however, can be satisfactorily performed by the cheapest class of labor. Under certain conditions some of the agriculturally inclined Indians might make very good pickers. In the event of cotton culture being developed on a commercial scale, Indian families could probably be employed to do the picking at a reasonable cost. If the industry becomes established in this region, the cost of picking will probably be reduced in proportion as the population becomes denser and the pickers more adept.

It is believed, however, that the best chance of establishing a cotton industry in the Colorado River region is not on the basis of a large individual acreage, requiring much hired labor, but on the basis of 2 to 5 acres to each farm, the farmer's family supplying most of the labor needed. A total acreage large enough to warrant the establishment of a compress could thus be secured. The comparatively small size of the farm units on the Salt River and Yuma reclamation projects will favor this distribution of the cotton acre-

age among many small growers. On this basis Egyptian cotton may reasonably be expected to become one of the staple crops in the irrigated districts of the hot Southwest.

MARKETS AND TRANSPORTATION.

The Colorado River region is a long way from the manufacturing centers where Egyptian cotton is chiefly used. In the United States these are mostly situated in New England. To market the product to the greatest advantage it will probably be necessary to ship it either to Boston or to Liverpool, the latter city being the greatest market in the world for Egyptian cotton. This will necessitate transportation by railway either to Galveston, Tex., the nearest port on the Gulf of Mexico, or else to some Pacific coast port, whence shipment could be made around Cape Horn. The former route would require a longer haul by railway, but a very much shorter transit by water to ports that are near the manufacturing centers. The latter route will very likely become the cheaper one when the Panama Canal is completed.

There is reason to hope that ultimately there will be a market on the Pacific coast for all cotton grown in Arizona and California. A mill which it is said now obtains from Texas 12,000 bales of cotton annually has been in operation in California for twenty years. Only short-staple cotton is utilized by this factory, but the existence near the Pacific coast of a source of supply of more valuable fiber might encourage the erection of factories adapted for the manufacture of the best grades of cotton goods.

The seed is a by-product of immense value in connection with cotton growing. There would probably be a good local market among dairymen and feeders for most of the cotton seed produced in the Colorado River region, since the price of all feed stuffs is very high there. Oil mills would probably soon spring up on the Pacific coast and would afford a market for any surplus that might exist.

DISEASES AND INSECT ENEMIES.

DISEASES.

The cotton plant is susceptible to a number of diseases caused by fungi and bacteria, the most serious of which in the United States are root-rot, anthracnose or boll-rot, wilt, and the disease which is sometimes known as "black arm." The last is a bacterial disease to which the Egyptian varieties are peculiarly sensitive. The other maladies are due to the attacks of fungi. Boll-rot, or anthracnose, and "black arm" are very apt to be disseminated with seed from in-

fectured areas, and it is probable that the wilt disease also can thus be conveyed. In obtaining cotton seed from the Southern States, therefore, great care should be taken to ascertain that the district from which it comes is free from all these diseases.

None of these diseases has as yet appeared as a foe to cotton in the irrigated districts of the Colorado River region, although there is every reason to fear that the root-rot, a disease peculiar to the Southwest, which is more or less prevalent on alfalfa in the Salt River Valley, may also attack the cotton plant. The only preventive measure that can at present be recommended is to avoid planting cotton on land on which alfalfa has died out in a manner suggesting the presence of root-rot. Since this fungus apparently exists in virgin land in the Southwest, sometimes attacking the first crop grown after such land is broken, it will be advisable to give all soil on which cotton is to be planted thorough aeration by means of a deep fall plowing.

THE BOLL WEEVIL.

Of the insects that attack cotton in the United States, the most injurious are the Mexican boll weevil and the bollworm. The weevil is especially to be dreaded in the Southwest. This scourge of cotton culture was first introduced into Texas from Mexico in 1893. It has spread so rapidly that in 1907 the infested area not only included the greater part of Texas and Louisiana, but had extended into Arkansas, Mississippi, and Oklahoma. There is no small danger that the entire cotton belt of the South will ultimately become infested with this insect. The direct loss due to the depredations of the weevil during the season of 1907 is estimated at 385,000 bales, valued at \$25,000,000. There is no question that the weevil can be distributed with the seed. For this reason, cotton seed should under no circumstances be introduced into Arizona or California from the weevil-infested regions of the South unless it has been fumigated under proper supervision.

Owing to the danger of introducing not only the weevil but the bacterial and fungous diseases already described, the safest plan will be to import no seed from any section of the South without thoroughly fumigating it upon arrival.

BERMUDA GRASS IN RELATION TO COTTON CULTURE.

Bermuda grass has gained a substantial foothold in the valley of the Colorado River just below Yuma, and conditions there have proved so favorable to its growth that it has become a most serious pest. This is one of the few regions in the United States where this grass produces seed, and it has been found to seed freely there throughout the summer, from May to November.

Since the plant quickly takes possession of ditch banks, where it makes a luxuriant growth, the seeds spread rapidly in the irrigation water and the weed soon gains a foothold on all irrigated land. Having once gained such a foothold, the grass spreads rapidly, and unless vigorous methods are used it soon completely infests the land. On the heavier soils it seems to resist successfully all attempts to eradicate it as long as the land is irrigated. In fact, no cases are yet known at Yuma where heavy land once infested has been entirely reclaimed from it.

Where water is supplied through infested ditches, the utmost vigilance is required to keep the weed in subjection. In view of the fact that cotton requires but little irrigation and permits thorough cultivation, this crop is admirably adapted for use where Bermuda grass infestation is likely to occur, and also where it is proposed to attempt the eradication of the weed.

It seems probable that fair success in eradication might be hoped for if an infested field were pastured down very close during one summer, plowed in the autumn, allowed to lie dry for eighteen months, with an occasional cultivation during the intermediate summer to kill any plants that might start growth, and then planted to cotton the third season. One thorough irrigation in March just before planting and another early in May would be enough to mature the cotton crop, and if these irrigations were followed by thorough and persistent cultivation the growth of Bermuda grass would at least be seriously checked, and such treatment might be sufficient to kill out the plants completely.

It has been noted that a very fair crop of cotton, amounting to nearly one bale to the acre, was produced at Yuma with but two irrigations, one on March 23 and one on May 9, on land that had not been irrigated for nearly a year before the cotton was planted, and which was therefore very thoroughly dried out.

Unless some comparatively drought-resistant crop, such as cotton, can be grown on these Bermuda-grass-infested soils, it will be hopeless to try to reclaim them without keeping them dry and well cultivated for at least two years.

SUMMARY.

During the past ten years the United States has imported on the average 53,000,000 pounds of Egyptian cotton annually. In 1907 the direct imports from Egypt were valued at \$16,000,000, and the average price per pound paid in Boston for Egyptian cotton was about 22 cents.

Egyptian cotton resembles Sea Island in many respects, the fiber being long, very strong, and very fine and silky. That of the leading

variety, Mit Affi, is characterized by its brown color. Egyptian cotton is in demand for manufacturing high-grade goods of various kinds and is especially suitable for mercerizing and for mixing with silk.

The Bureau of Plant Industry has for several years experimented with Egyptian cotton at various localities in the southern United States, from South Carolina to central Texas. The results in the main cotton belt do not promise much success, the failure of many of the bolls to ripen before the first killing frost in the autumn making it impossible to obtain the maximum yields.

The Colorado River region in southern Arizona and southeastern California, which is the part of the United States that most nearly resembles Egypt in its long, hot, nearly rainless summers and its agriculture under irrigation, has proved to be well adapted to Egyptian varieties of cotton.

Experiments carried on in the Southwest, especially at Yuma, Ariz., during the last five years, have demonstrated that good yields of high-grade Egyptian cotton can be produced in that region.

Acclimatization has, however, been found necessary, since during the first two or three years of the experiments the plants made an excessive growth of wood and produced relatively few bolls, which ripened late and did not open satisfactorily.

During the past two seasons the size of the plants has diminished, the average number of bolls on each plant has greatly increased, they have ripened much earlier, and they have opened wide, rendering picking much easier.

Careful selection has also been necessary, especially with the principal variety, the Mit Affi, which, when first introduced into the United States, was found to be much mixed, containing a large percentage of inferior individuals. The average length of the fiber was less than $1\frac{3}{8}$ inches, and it lacked the strength, fineness, and uniform light-brown color that characterize the best grades grown in Egypt.

In 1907 the average length of fiber in the experimental field at Yuma was practically $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and the strength, fineness, luster, and color were very satisfactory.

The selections include two well-marked types, corresponding to the two leading Egyptian varieties, Mit Affi and Jannovitch. The first has fiber about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length, crinkly but fine, and of a pronounced brown color. The second, which more nearly approaches Sea Island varieties, averages $1\frac{3}{8}$ inches in the length of its fiber, which is silky, lustrous, and of a very light cream color.

Mit Affi Egyptian cotton yielded at Yuma in 1907 at the rate of 3,300 pounds of seed cotton to the acre. The percentage of lint being about 30, this gives a yield of two American bales, which practically equalled that of any Upland variety grown in the same field.

This yield was obtained with the rows 6 feet apart and the plants 3 feet apart in the rows, while in Egypt the rows average 32 inches apart and the hills 16 inches apart, with two plants in each hill. Hence, in Egypt there are ordinarily ten times as many plants to the acre as in the experiments at Yuma. As acclimatization in the Southwest progresses, the plants will probably become smaller and the distance for planting can be decreased.

Early planting gives much better results than later planting. The seed should be put in as soon as there is reasonable certainty of no further danger from killing frosts.

A level seed bed, with flood irrigation, is probably better adapted to conditions in the southwestern United States than the furrow method of planting and irrigating that is practiced in Egypt.

Cotton is a relatively drought-resistant plant by virtue of its deep taproot, which in the loamy soils of Yuma Valley penetrates from 6 to 8 feet. Consequently, it requires less water than most crops that are grown under irrigation.

Preliminary experiments indicate that even in a rather light loam soil two irrigations after planting suffice to produce a good crop of cotton, provided a thorough cultivation is given after each watering and a good dust mulch is at all times maintained. Irrigation is apparently unnecessary after the first of September. Heavy irrigations late in the season retard ripening and increase the risk of loss from early frosts.

The high fall temperatures of the Colorado River region and the indeterminate growth of Egyptian cotton plants cause the ripening of the fiber to be continued during several months. Three or four pickings are necessary to harvest the bulk of the crop.

The small size of the bolls of Egyptian varieties and the vigorous growth of the plants make picking slower than with large-bolled Upland varieties. To gather 100 pounds of Egyptian seed cotton requires one and one-half times as long as to gather the same quantity from big-bolled Upland varieties.

The greater cost of picking is relatively unimportant, however, in view of the much higher price brought by Egyptian cotton. That of the grade grown at Yuma in 1907 should be worth more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ times as much as Middling Upland cotton. The expense of all other cultural processes is the same for both types of cotton.

At least 600,000 acres of land will be under irrigation in the Colorado River region within a few years. One-fifth of this acreage, with a yield of one American bale to the acre, could produce the average amount of Egyptian cotton that has been imported into the United States during the last ten years.

PLATES.

128

63

DESCRIPTION OF PLATES.

PLATE I. *Frontispiece*. General view of the experimental field of Egyptian and other varieties of cotton at Yuma, Ariz., in 1907. The breeding rows are shown in the foreground. Plats were also grown for yield tests and for experiments with different times and frequency of irrigation. The rows were 6 feet apart and the plants 3 feet apart in the rows in this field.

PLATE II. Fig. 1.—A plant of Egyptian cotton at Yuma in 1903, grown from seed produced by plants grown the year previous from imported seed. The illustration shows the undesirable shape and rank growth of the unacclimatized plants (the shaft of the auger being $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet long); also the comparatively small number of bolls produced. Fig. 2.—Mit Affi Egyptian cotton at Yuma in 1907, showing the productiveness and satisfactory opening of the bolls brought about by six years of acclimatization and selection. The ripe cotton hangs loose in the fully open bolls, making picking much easier than was the case during the first three years after introduction into the Southwest, when the bolls opened only partially and the cotton had to be pulled out between the points of the valves.

PLATE III. Representative plants of Mit Affi Egyptian cotton at Yuma in 1907, showing the greatly reduced size and improved shape as compared with the plant shown in Plate II, figure 1. The plant with a branch nearly as long as the main stem, shown in the upper figure, is the more typical one. The perfect manner in which the bolls opened in 1907 is well shown in the lower figure.

PLATE IV. Open (*b, c*) and unopened (*c, d*) bolls and detached involucre bract (*a*) of Mit Affi cotton at Yuma in 1907, natural size. The illustration shows the small, pointed, 3-locked bolls characteristic of the Egyptian type of cotton. The open bolls are seen both from above (*b*) and from the side (*c*).

PLATE V. Combed-out seed cotton (natural size) of one of the individual selections of Mit Affi cotton grown at Yuma, Ariz., showing increased length due to five generations of selection. A is the original selection, grown in 1903 from seed produced the year before from imported seed, and is the progenitor of B, which was produced in 1907. Owing to the curling of the fibers after combing, the full length, which was $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in A and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in B, is not shown. The illustration represents the average difference in length between the forty individual selections made in 1907 and their progenitors in 1903.



FIG. 1.—EGYPTIAN COTTON PLANTS AT YUMA, ARIZ., IN 1903, SHOWING RANK GROWTH AND RELATIVE STERILITY.



FIG. 2.—EGYPTIAN COTTON PLANTS AT YUMA IN 1907, SHOWING PRODUCTIVENESS AND SATISFACTORY OPENING OF BOLLS.



FIG. 1.—TYPICAL MIT AFIFI COTTON PLANT GROWN AT YUMA, ARIZ., IN 1907.



FIG. 2.—ANOTHER TYPICAL MIT AFIFI COTTON PLANT GROWN AT YUMA IN 1907.



OPEN AND UNOPENED BOLLS OF MIT AFIFI COTTON GROWN AT YUMA, ARIZ., IN 1907.
(Natural size.)



MIT AFI SEED COTTON, SHOWING IMPROVEMENT BY SELECTION: A, SELECTION OF 1903; B, DESCENDANT IN 1907.
(Natural size.)



MIT AFI SEED COTTON, SHOWING IMPROVEMENT BY SELECTION: A, SELECTION OF 1903; B, DESCENDANT IN 1907.
(Natural size.)

INDEX.

	Page.
Abbas cotton, description and yield.....	18
experimental growing in United States	37
similarity to Sea Island cotton.....	37
Acclimatization of Egyptian cotton in Southwest, results.....	37-43, 61
Alexandria, Egypt, average prices of Egyptian and Upland cottons, 1898-1907	25
climate, temperature, and humidity.....	12-14
Alkali resistance, cotton.....	15, 16, 32
soils. <i>See</i> Soils.	
Arizona, areas adapted to Egyptian cotton.....	28
climate, humidity, and saturation deficit, comparison with Egypt	12-13
temperature, humidity, etc.....	29-31
experiments with Egyptian cotton, 1902.....	34
irrigation experiments with Egyptian cotton, results.....	45-48
soil surveys	31
Ashmuni cotton, American-grown, reports of experts.....	34-37
description, length of fiber, yield, and value.....	17
experimental growing in United States.....	34
Automobile tires, use of Egyptian and Sea Island cottons.....	27
Balbriggan goods, use of Egyptian cotton.....	26
Bales, cotton, description, size, and weight, American and Egyptian....	24, 55-56
Balling cotton, Egypt	24
Southwestern United States.....	54-56
Bermuda grass, eradication from cotton fields in Colorado River region..	59-60
Berseem, maintenance of soil fertility in Egypt.....	11
rotation with cotton in Egypt.....	19
use as a winter crop in Southwestern United States.....	57
Bicycle tires, use of Egyptian and Sea Island cottons.....	27
"Black arm" disease, Egyptian cotton, danger from infected seed.....	58
Boll-rot disease, Egyptian cotton, danger from infected seed.....	58
weevil, danger of introduction in Colorado River region, preventive measures.....	9, 59
loss of cotton, season of 1907.....	59
Boston, average prices of Egyptian and Upland cottons, 1898-1907.....	25
Cairo, climate, temperature, and humidity.....	12-14
Calexico, Cal., Jannovitch cotton, reports of experts.....	34-37
California, areas adapted to Egyptian cotton.....	28, 33
experiments with Egyptian cotton, 1902.....	34
Jannovitch cotton, reports of experts.....	34-37
soil surveys	31
southeastern, climate, rainfall, temperature, etc.....	29-31
Climate, Arizona, comparison with Egypt.....	12-14
Salt River and Yuma valleys.....	29-31
California, southeastern.....	29-31
Egypt, comparison with Arizona.....	11-14

	Page.
"Climatology of the United States," authority for climatic data of Arizona.....	11
Clover, Alexandrian. <i>See</i> Berseem.	
Colorado River region, acreage under irrigation.....	62
area adapted to Egyptian cotton.....	33
Bermuda grass eradication.....	60
Egyptian cotton, cultural suggestions.....	48-57
labor conditions.....	57
soils, authorities quoted.....	31
composition and fertilizer requirements.....	31-32
suitability for Egyptian cottons.....	8, 9
use of leguminous crops for green manuring.....	57
water supply.....	32-33
sediment, average.....	15
Valley, climate, etc., represented by Yuma, Ariz., records.....	12, 29-31
Compress, cotton. <i>See</i> Press.	
Cotton acreage, Egypt.....	11
alkali resistance.....	15-16, 32
American Middling Upland, average prices, Alexandria, Liverpool, and Boston, 1898-1907.....	25
baling, Southwestern United States.....	54-56
boll-rot. <i>See</i> Boll-rot.	
weevil. <i>See</i> Boll weevil.	
cultivation, Egyptian methods.....	22-23
to secure dust mulch.....	53
cultural methods, Egypt.....	19-24
culture in Egypt, description.....	10-26
deterioration of varieties in Egypt.....	18, 19
drought resistance.....	47, 49
Egypt, yields, markets, and exports.....	24-26
Egyptian, acclimatization in Southwest, results.....	37-43
adaptability to certain classes of manufactures.....	26-28
American-grown, markets and transportation.....	58
and American, average prices, Alexandria, Liverpool, and Boston, 1898-1907.....	25
areas adapted to culture in United States.....	28-33
characteristics and advantages.....	7
characters of the plants grown in the Southwest.....	38-39
culture in United States.....	28-60
machinery required.....	54-56
experiments in Arizona.....	34-48
California.....	34
the South Atlantic and Gulf States.....	33
Southwest, results, tests.....	34-43
fiber, color.....	26, 27, 41, 45
from different pickings, comparison.....	43
freedom from "nep".....	27
waste.....	28
grades and quality.....	18
growing, Southwest, cultural suggestions.....	48-57
planting, distance and depth.....	52

	Page.
Cotton, Egyptian, prices, average, Alexandria, Liverpool, Boston, 1898-1907.....	7, 25, 60
quality and grades.....	18-19
similarity to Sea Island cotton.....	7, 16, 60
types produced in United States.....	45
uses by American manufacturers.....	26-28
varieties, source, description, and characteristics.....	16-18
yield tests at Yuma.....	39-40
experts, opinions on American-grown Egyptian cotton.....	34-37, 44-45
fields, Colorado River region, eradication of Bermuda grass.....	60
ginning and baling, Egypt.....	24
Southwestern United States.....	54-56
imports from Egypt, 1898-1907.....	7, 25, 60
injury by fogs.....	14
introduction into Egypt from Georgia.....	16
irrigation.....	48-50
land, preparation, Egypt.....	19
picking, Egypt, time and cost, percentage harvested.....	23
Egyptian and Upland varieties, comparison.....	8, 39, 54, 62
in Southwest, suggestions.....	54
planting, depth for Egyptian cotton seed.....	52
Egypt, time, distance, and quantity of seed.....	21
Southwest, time and distance.....	50-53
plants, cutting after gathering the crop.....	54
prices, Alexandria, Liverpool, and Boston, 1898-1907.....	25
Egyptian and American Middling Upland, comparison, 1898-1907.....	25
root system favored by deep plowing and thorough cultivation.....	50, 53, 62
seed. <i>See</i> Seed.	
stalks, removing.....	54
unit of weight for basing price in Egypt.....	18
Upland, grown in Southwest, strength tests.....	42, 43
long-staple varieties, comparison with Egyptian.....	27
strength tests.....	42
yields at Yuma.....	39
<i>See also</i> Varietal names.	
Crop rotation, cotton lands in Southwestern United States.....	56
Egypt.....	11, 19
Cultivation, cotton, Egypt.....	22-23
to secure dust mulch.....	53
Delta, Nile, climatic data.....	12
Dewey, L. H., experiments with Egyptian cotton.....	34
Diseases, Egyptian cotton in United States, preventive measures.....	58-59
Dry goods, classes made of Egyptian cotton.....	26-28
Egypt, agricultural, crop acreage.....	11
climate, rainfall, and temperature.....	11-14
cotton acreage.....	11
culture, conditions, sources of information.....	10, 16
description, methods.....	10-26
imports by U. S., 1907.....	7, 60
picking, ginning, and baling.....	23-24
yields and markets.....	24-26

	Page.
Egypt, physical characteristics	11-16
soils, origin, composition, and fertilizer needs	14-16
Egyptian cotton. <i>See</i> Cotton, Egyptian.	
Fabrics, classes manufactured from Egyptian cotton	27
Farming implements, Egypt	20, 23, 24
Fiber, cotton, comparison of different pickings	43
length of different varieties	7, 17, 18
strength, influence of irrigation	42-43
Egyptian cotton, American-grown, quality	40-43
reports of experts	34-37, 44-45
yield and quality, influence of irrigation	45-48
Fertilizer requirements, soils of Egypt	15
Flooding, irrigation system, use in Colorado River region	49
Foaden, G. P., authority on varieties of Egyptian cotton	10
estimate of yield of Egyptian cotton	24
Fogs, absence from climate of Southwestern United States	14
occurrence in Egypt, effect on cotton crop	14
Frost, relation to time of planting and yields	39, 50, 51, 53, 54
Fungus, cotton-disease, danger from infected soil, prevention	59
Furrow irrigation, cotton in Egypt	20
Gallini cotton, supposed origin of Mit Afifi variety	17
Germination, cotton-seed testing	52
Getty, William, expert, report on American-grown Egyptian cotton	35
Ginning cotton, Egypt	24
Southwestern United States	55-56
Gins, cotton, requirements for Egyptian cotton	55-56
roller and saw, comparison	24, 55
use in Egypt	24
Gossypium barbardense, species including Egyptian and Sea Island cottons, characteristics	7, 16, 38
hirsutum. <i>See</i> Upland cotton.	
peruvianum, supposed relationship to Egyptian cotton	17
Grading Egyptian cotton	18
Gulf States, experiments with Egyptian cotton	33-34
Haserick, A. A., estimate of yield of Egyptian cotton	24
Henry, A. J., authority for climatic data on Arizona	11
Hoing cotton, Egypt, methods	22-23
Holmes, G. K., statistics on cotton yields and markets	24-26
J. Garnett, soil surveys, California and Arizona	31
Humidity, mean relative, Egypt and Arizona	13, 29
Humphrey, O. L., expert report on American-grown Egyptian cotton	35-37
Imperial Valley, California, estimates of temperature, rainfall, etc.	29-30
irrigation, area supplied with water	33
soils, description	31-32
Imports, cotton, from Egypt, 1907	7, 60
Indians as cotton pickers	57
Introduction to bulletin	7-10
Irrigation, advantages in cotton culture	48
conditions, Colorado River region	62
cotton, Egypt	21-22
effect on strength of cotton fiber	42-43

	Page.
Irrigation, excessive, bad effects on cotton.....	22, 49, 62
experiments, Egyptian cotton, Arizona, results.....	45-48
furrow, compared with flooding.....	49
suggestions.....	48-50
systems, Nile Valley.....	11, 15
Jannovitch cotton, American-grown, reports of experts.....	34-37, 44-45
strength tests.....	36, 42-43
yield tests.....	39
California, 1903, estimated value.....	26
experimental growing in United States.....	33, 34, 37
source, description, yield, and value.....	17-18
Jumel, introduction of cotton into Egypt from Georgia.....	16
Kearney, Thos. H., experiments in growing Egyptian cotton.....	34
reference.....	10, 16
Kerrigan, F. S., expert, report on American-grown Egyptian cotton.....	35
Labor conditions, Colorado River region.....	57-58
Land preparation for cotton in Egypt.....	19
Southwestern United States.....	50
Leguminous crops, Egypt, as sources of nitrogen.....	11, 15
Southwestern United States, as sources of nitrogen.....	57
Liverpool, average prices of Egyptian and Upland cottons, 1898-1907.....	25
Lowell Textile School, expert report on American-grown Egyptian cotton.....	35
Lyons, H. G., authority for climatic and physiographic data of Egypt.....	11, 14
Machinery, requirements in Egyptian cotton culture.....	54-56
Manure, farm, Egypt, cost and methods of application.....	20
Markets, cotton exports from Egypt, 1898-1906.....	24
Egyptian cotton, American-grown.....	58
Means, Thomas H., reference.....	10, 16
soil surveys in Arizona and California, reference.....	31
Mercerized goods, use of Egyptian cotton.....	26
Meteorological data. <i>See</i> Climate, Humidity, Saturation, Temperature.	
Mit Afifi cotton, American-grown, reports of experts.....	34-37, 44-45
strength tests.....	41-43
yield tests.....	39
Egypt, acreage, description, length of fiber, and yield.....	17
experimental growing in United States.....	33, 34, 37
planting, distance, Southwestern United States.....	51
standard Egyptian variety.....	19
yield per acre at Yuma, Ariz., 1907.....	61
Mulch, dust, cotton, cultivation to maintain.....	53
Mutations, origins of cotton varieties.....	16
"Nep," freedom of Egyptian cotton, probable cause.....	27
presence in American-grown Egyptian cotton.....	36, 44
New Mexico, experiments with Egyptian cotton, 1902.....	34
Nile sediment, thickness, determination.....	14, 15
Valley, crop acreage and irrigation works.....	11
Nitrogen, sources, Egyptian crops.....	11, 15
in Southwestern United States.....	57
Nubari cotton, description.....	18
Peeler. <i>See</i> Cotton, Upland, long-staple.	
Peruvian cotton, supposed relationship to Egyptian cotton.....	17
Phoenix, Ariz., climate, temperature, and humidity.....	12-14, 29-31

	Page.
"Physiography of Nile River and Its Basin," by H. G. Lyons, authority on climate and soils of Egypt.....	11, 14
Picking cotton, comparison of Egyptian and Upland varieties.....	8, 39, 54, 62
Egypt, percentage harvested at each time, etc.....	23
time and cost.....	23
in Southwest, labor.....	57, 58
suggestions.....	53-54
Plant Industry, Bureau, experiments in growing Egyptian cotton, results.....	8, 33-37, 61
Planting cotton, Egypt, time, distance, and quantity of seed.....	21
Southwest, time, distance, and methods.....	50-53
Plates, description.....	63
Plowing, deep, for cotton planting.....	20, 50
Press, cotton, prices for various sizes and capacities.....	55, 56
requirements for Egyptian cotton.....	55-56
Prices, estimates on American-grown Egyptian cotton.....	35, 44
market quotations of Egyptian and Upland cotton.....	25
Rainfall, Arizona, average annual.....	29
Egypt.....	12
injurious to Egyptian cottons.....	31
Reclamation Service, irrigation work in Arizona.....	32
Roller gins, use in ginning Egyptian cotton.....	24, 55
Root-rot disease, Egyptian cotton, danger from soil fungus in Southwestern United States.....	59
Rotation, crop, cotton lands in Southwestern United States.....	56-57
Egypt.....	11, 19
Salt River Valley, climate, etc., represented by Phoenix, Ariz., records.....	12, 29-31
irrigation, area supplied with water.....	32
soils, description.....	31-32
Sateens, use of Egyptian cotton.....	27
Saturation deficit, mean, Egypt and Arizona.....	13-14
Saw gins not adapted for use on Egyptian cotton.....	24, 55
Sea Island cotton, similarity to Egyptian cotton.....	7, 16, 60
substitution of Egyptian cotton in manufactures.....	27
Sediment, Colorado River, average.....	15
Nile, thickness, determination.....	14, 15
Seed, cotton, fumigation to prevent introduction of boll weevil.....	10, 59
germination, test.....	52
market.....	58
quantity per acre in Egypt.....	21, 51
selection for Southwest.....	10, 37, 52, 61
Sodium chlorid, resistance of cotton.....	16
Soils, alkali, Colorado River region.....	32
Egypt.....	15, 16
Colorado River region, authorities quoted.....	31
Egypt, origin, composition, and fertilizer needs.....	14-15
Salt River, Yuma, and Imperial valleys, description.....	31-32
South Atlantic States, experiments with Egyptian cotton.....	33-34
Carolina, experiments with Egyptian cotton.....	34
Southwest, Egyptian cotton growing, cultural suggestions.....	48-57
experiments with Egyptian cotton, results of tests.....	34-43
Strength tests, American-grown Egyptian cotton.....	36, 41-43

	Page.
Summary of bulletin.....	60-62
Temperature, mean monthly and annual, Arizona and Egypt.....	12
Territorial Agricultural Experiment Station, Arizona, growing Egyptian cotton, experiments and results.....	34-37
Tests, cotton, yield and strength.....	36, 39, 41-43
Texas, experiments with Egyptian cotton, 1902.....	34
Thinning young cotton.....	52
Thread, fine, superiority of Sea Island cotton.....	27
Tires, bicycle and automobile, use of Egyptian and Sea Island cottons..	27
Transportation, Egyptian cotton, American-grown.....	58
Types, Egyptian cotton, developed from imported seed.....	45
Uses of Egyptian cotton.....	26-28
Varieties. <i>See</i> Cotton, varieties.	
Viability cotton seed testing.....	52
Waste, cotton, definition.....	35
determination in American-grown Egyptian varieties.....	35, 36
Water supply, Colorado River region.....	32-33
Webber, Herbert J., experiments in growing Egyptian cotton.....	33-34
Weevil, boll. <i>See</i> Boll weevil.	
Wilt disease, danger from infected seed.....	58, 59
Yields, cotton, in Arizona, tests, 1907.....	39, 46
Egypt.....	24
Yuma, Ariz., climate, temperature, and humidity.....	12-14, 29-31
experiments with Egyptian cottons, concentration of work..	8
irrigation experiments in growing Egyptian cotton.....	45-48
Valley, climate, temperature, and humidity.....	12-14, 29-31
irrigation, area supplied with water.....	33
soils, description.....	31-32

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY—BULLETIN NO. 129.

B. T. GALLOWAY, *Chief of Bureau.*

BARIUM, A CAUSE OF THE LOCO-WEED DISEASE.

BY

ALBERT C. CRAWFORD,

PHARMACOLOGIST, POISONOUS-PLANT INVESTIGATIONS.

ISSUED AUGUST 22, 1908.



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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY,
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF,
Washington, D. C., April 10, 1908.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith the manuscript of a technical bulletin entitled "Barium, a Cause of the Loco-Weed Disease," prepared by Dr. A. C. Crawford, Pharmacologist, under the direction of Dr. Rodney H. True, Physiologist in Charge of Poisonous-Plant Investigations, and to recommend that it be published as Bulletin No. 129 of the series of this Bureau.

For many years the stockmen in many parts of the West have reported disastrous consequences following the eating of so-called loco weeds characteristic of the regions involved. While many have doubted any causal relation between the plants in question and the stock losses, the reality of the damage has remained and has seemed to require a thoroughgoing sifting of the evidence concerning the part played by the plants. Accordingly, in the spring of 1905 a station for the experimental study of the problem was established at Hugo, Colo., in charge of Dr. C. Dwight Marsh, Expert, in cooperation with the Colorado Agricultural Experiment Station. Later a further feeding experiment was undertaken at Imperial, Nebr., in cooperation with the Nebraska Agricultural Experiment Station. Parallel with the feeding work in the field, laboratory work, designed to test under laboratory conditions the poisonous action of the plants from given areas, was undertaken at Washington by Dr. A. C. Crawford, Pharmacologist. A further phase of his part of the work was an attempt to ascertain the nature of such poisonous substance or substances as might occur in the loco plants.

In both of these lines of work Doctor Crawford has been successful, and the technical results of his work are here collected.

Respectfully,

B. T. GALLOWAY,
Chief of Bureau.

HON. JAMES WILSON,
Secretary of Agriculture.

INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT.

A scientific understanding of the so-called loco-weed disease has been demanded and sought after for several decades for most practical purposes, but, in spite of the great amount of attention which this problem has received, no general agreement has been found among the results obtained. The field investigations have given such contradictory evidence that until the Bureau of Plant Industry of the Department of Agriculture turned its attention to the matter the whole subject of the loco disease was regarded by many as a kind of delusion and the existence of a distinct entity was freely doubted. Not only did this confusion characterize the field aspect of the matter, but the situation viewed from the standpoint of laboratory study was also much obscured. Some investigators claimed to have separated poisonous substances of various sorts from the loco weeds, while others of equal scientific standing denied the presence of any poisonous substance in the plants under general suspicion—the so-called loco weeds.

In view of the great seriousness of the loco situation from the standpoint of the stock interests, an active campaign both in the line of feeding experiments in the field and laboratory study at Washington was undertaken by the Office of Poisonous-Plant Investigations of the Bureau of Plant Industry.

The feeding experiments carried out at Hugo, Colo., in cooperation with the Colorado Agricultural Experiment Station, before the close of the first season developed evidence that there was in reality such a thing as a loco disease. The investigator in charge was enabled to describe the disease in its most important manifestations and made it possible to sift the facts from the large number of contradictory statements in the literature.

The laboratory work, undertaken and carried on simultaneously, consisted of a pharmacological study, under laboratory conditions and with the usual laboratory subjects, of the action of plant material sent in from the field. The acute phase of loco-weed poisoning, as well as a more prolonged type of the disease, was studied. In plants found in this preliminary feeding to be harmful, the poisonous principle was sought, with the very striking results fully described in this paper. The demonstration of the presence of barium in the plants was followed by barium feeding, with the production of symptoms

which agreed with those produced in the laboratory with loco extracts and in the field experiments with the loco plants as seen growing on the range. By comparing these laboratory results with those produced in connection with the field work, it became possible to sift the wheat from the chaff in the mass of contradictory evidence detailed in the literature of this subject.

The practical importance of the discovery of the true nature of the active poisonous principle of the loco weeds is very great. It not only sheds light on the loco situation and enables one to explain many hitherto inexplicable things, but it also adds much to our knowledge of barium in its medical bearings. It opens up most important problems concerning the soils and the relation of the flora to them. It should be borne in mind that although barium is shown to be chiefly responsible for the poisonous properties of loco weeds in eastern Colorado, it is entirely possible that in other regions other substances may be equally or even more significant. This discovery also seems likely to provide a basis for a rational treatment of locoed stock. Unfortunately, the discovery of the fact that barium is the poisonous constituent of loco weeds came too late to aid in the search for remedial measures on the range during the period covered by this report, but those empirically arrived at have received additional support from these laboratory results.

Thus the work in field and laboratory, undertaken after repeated attempts and discouraging failures by others, has yielded results to persistent scientific research and promises practical aid to the now suffering live-stock interests. The results of the laboratory work are presented in this bulletin.

RODNEY H. TRUE,
Physiologist in Charge.

CONTENTS.

	Page.
Geographical distribution of the loco-weed disease and allied conditions...	9
Plants associated with the locoed condition.....	10
Clinical symptoms of locoed animals as described in literature.....	12
Conditions similar to loco-weed poisoning in other parts of the world....	16
Pathological conditions in locoed animals as described on the range.....	18
Historical sketch of loco investigations from a pharmacological stand- point.....	19
Notes on various members of the loco-weed family.....	35
Laboratory experiments—physiological.....	36
Experiments on rabbits.....	36
Acute cases.....	36
Chronic cases.....	38
Pregnant animals.....	42
Subcutaneous injections.....	43
Summary of feeding experiments on rabbits.....	44
Experiments on sheep.....	44
Laboratory experiments—chemical.....	46
Effect of the aqueous extract of ashed loco plants.....	49
Total ash determinations of loco plants.....	54
Barium determinations in the ash of loco plants.....	55
Analysis of soils.....	57
Feeding experiments with barium salts on animals in the laboratory....	57
Barium poisoning in man.....	62
Pathological lesions in experimental barium poisoning.....	65
Toxicity of various aqueous extracts of loco plants.....	66
Theoretical antidote for loco-weed poisoning.....	71
Action of barium on domestic and farm animals.....	72
Application of the results of these investigations to the range.....	74
Conclusions.....	75
Index.....	77

BARIUM, A CAUSE OF THE LOCO-WEED DISEASE.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE LOCO-WEED DISEASE AND ALLIED CONDITIONS.

In our Western States there is a marked annual loss of stock due to various causes. Some of these animals die in a condition known as "locoed," a term derived from the Spanish word "loco," meaning foolish or crazy.

This disorder extends from Montana to Texas and Mexico, and from Kansas and Nebraska to California.^a

In 1898 the United States Department of Agriculture sent out, under the immediate direction of Mr. V. K. Chesnut, a request for information concerning the ravages of the loco disease. It was found that in the ten States of California, Colorado, Kansas, Montana, Nebraska, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Texas, and Wyoming the loss in 1898 was \$144,850. Of this amount, \$117,300 was attributed to Colorado alone; in fact, the disorder spread so that this State expended more than \$200,000 in two years and over \$425,000 in a period of nine years in attempts to eradicate the loco plants, the supposed cause of the trouble.^b

The loss in one area of 35 by 120 miles in southwestern Kansas amounted to 25,000 cattle in 1883.^c This loss in stock has been so great that the raising of horses has of necessity been abandoned in certain areas on account of the prevalence of these loco weeds.

It is difficult to obtain accurate data, as the ranchmen believe that any information as to the prevalence of the disorder would interfere with the value of their stock.^d

Dr. James Fletcher, of the Central Experimental Farm, Ottawa, Canada, testified before the Select Standing Committee on Agri-

^a Stalker, M. The "Loco" Plant and Its Effect on Animals. Bur. Animal Industry, 3d Ann. Rept. (1886), p. 271. 1887.

^b Bur. Animal Industry, 6th and 7th Ann. Repts. (1889 and 1890), p. 272. 1891.

^c Day, M. G. Loco-Weed. In F. P. Foster's Reference-Book of Practical Therapeutics, vol. 1, p. 587. 1896.

^d O'Brine, D. Progress Bulletin on the Loco and Larkspur. Colo. State Agric. Coll. Bul. 25, p. 18. 1893.

culture and Colonization that he had never seen a case in the Northwest of a Canadian bred animal being locoed, although the loco plants were prevalent. He explained this absence of loco disease by the abundance of grass on the range, because of which the animals do not acquire the habit of eating loco plants.^a Cases have been reported, however, in Manitoba.^b

PLANTS ASSOCIATED WITH THE LOCOED CONDITION.

The condition known as "locoed" is popularly believed to be due to eating various plants, especially the members of the *Astragalus* and *Aragallus* genera of the Leguminosæ, or pea family, but particularly to *Astragalus mollissimus* and *Aragallus lamberti*. These plants have therefore received the name "loco plants,"^c or crazy weed. But others, as *Astragalus murtoni*,^d *A. hornii*, *A. lentiginosus*, *A. pattersoni*,^e *A. nuttallianus*, *A. missouriensis*, *A. lotiflorus*, *A. bisulcatus*, *A. haydenianus*,^f *A. tridactylus*,^g *Crotalaria sagittalis*, *Lotus americanus*,^h *Sophora sericea*, *Caprioides aureum*, *Aragallus deflexa*,ⁱ *A. campestris*,^j *A. lagopus*,^k *Malvastrum coccineum*, *Amaranthus graecizans*, and *Rhamnus lanceolata*, are considered by some as loco plants.^l In other places *Stipa vaseyi*, *Leucocrinum montanum*, *Fritillaria pudica*, *Zygadenus elegans*,^m and even species of *Delphinium* are considered loco plants, so widely has this name been used.

In Mexico the term "locoed" embraces a condition due to the action of *Cannabis sativa* and various members of the nightshade family. This term has been much abused and has been made to embrace many groups of symptoms. In fact, if an animal dies while

^a Fletcher, J. Evidence Before the Select Standing Committee on Agriculture and Colonization. Ottawa, 1905, p. 53.

^b Fletcher, J. Experimental Farms Reports for 1892, p. 148. 1893.

^c Sayre, L. E. Loco Weed. Amer. Vet. Rev., vol. 11, p. 555. 1887.—Stalker, M. The "Loco" Plant and Its Effect on Animals. Bur. Animal Industry, 3d Ann. Report. (1886), p. 271. 1887.

^d Eastwood, A. The Loco Weeds. Zoe, vol. 3, p. 53. 1892.

^e Chesnut, V. K. Preliminary Catalogue of Plants Poisonous to Stock. Bur. Animal Industry, 15th Ann. Rept. (1898), p. 404.

^f Williams, T. A. Some Plants Injurious to Stock. S. Dak. Agric. Coll. and Exper. Sta. Bul. 33, p. 21. 1893.

^g Glvens, A. J. Loco or Crazy Weed. Med. Century, vol. 1, p. 22. 1893.

^h Eastwood, A., l. c. 1892.

ⁱ Sayre, L. E. Loco Weed. Amer. Vet. Rev., vol. 11, p. 555. 1887.

^j Amer. Pharm. Assoc. Proc. for 1879, vol. 27, p. 611. 1880.

^k Kelsey, F. D. Another Loco Plant. Bot. Gaz., vol. 14, p. 20. 1889.

^l Sayre, L. E. Loco Weed. Kans. State Board Agric., 5th Bienn. Rept., p. 209. 1887.

^m Anderson, F. W. Poisonous Plants and the Symptoms They Produce. Bot. Gaz., vol. 14, p. 180. 1889.—Pammel, L. H. Loco Weeds. Vis Medicatrix, vol. 1, p. 44. 1891.

showing more or less stupor it is said to be locoed.^a The early Spanish settlers seemed to be unfamiliar with the disease, or at least of any causative relation between the plant and the disease. The Spanish name for *Astragalus mollissimus* was "Garbanzillo," from its resemblance to Garbanzo (*Cicer arietinum*), which is used in Spain as a food.^b The term as applied to this condition seems to be of comparatively recent origin.^c

A somewhat similar condition to the loco in stock is sometimes attributed by the ranchmen of our Western States to eating various sages.^d In Texas the loco disease is known as "grass staggers."^e

Hayes^f has described as follows a condition known as grass staggers, which apparently has little resemblance to loco and is supposed to be due to eating overripe grass, especially rye.

The symptoms, generally, take two or three days to become developed. The animal gradually becomes more or less unconscious and paralyzed and staggers if forced to walk. Although he may have great difficulty in keeping on his legs, he is extremely averse from going down and leans for support against any convenient object. He breathes in a snoring manner. The mucous membranes are tinged with yellow. Convulsions, or spasms, like those of tetanus, may come on.

Recovery may be expected in cases which are not marked by extreme symptoms.

If animals are not regularly salted, they visit salt deposits and eat the alkalis. This some sheepmen believe to be the cause of the locoed condition, but this is disproved by the occurrence of locoed animals in ranges without salt. Others modify this view by claiming that the vitiation in taste from eating these alkalis leads to a desire for the loco weeds and thus to the locoed condition.^g

^a Stalker, M. The "Loco" Plant and Its Effect on Animals. Bur. Animal Industry, 3d Ann. Rept. (1886), p. 275. 1887.—Anderson, F. W. Poisonous Plants and the Symptoms They Produce. Bot. Gaz., vol. 14, p. 180. 1889.

NOTE.—The symptoms described in Janvier's interesting story, "In Old Mexico" (Scribner's Magazine, vol. 1, p. 67, 1887), would coincide with those due to some member of the nightshade family (probably *Datura stramonium*). See also Pilgrim, C. W., Does the Loco Weed Produce Insanity? In Proc. Amer. Medico-Psycholog. Assoc., vol. 5, p. 167. 1898.

^b Sayre, L. E. Loco Weed. Kans. State Board Agric., 5th Bienn. Rept., p. 209. 1887.

^c Stalker, M. The "Loco" Plant and Its Effect on Animals. Bur. Animal Industry, 3d Ann. Rept. (1886), p. 272. 1887.

^d Mayo, N. S. Loco. The Industrialist, vol. 30, p. 473. 1904.

^e Science, vol. 9, p. 32. 1887.

^f Hayes, M. H. Veterinary Notes for Horse Owners, London, 1903, p. 425.—Compare Woronin, M. Ueber die Taumelgetreide in Süd-Ussurien. Bot. Zeit., vol. 49, p. 80. 1891.

^g Chesnut, V. K., and Wilcox, E. V. Stock-Poisoning Plants of Montana. U. S. Dept. Agric., Div. Bot., Bul. 26, p. 88. 1901.

NOTE.—The wide distribution of these plants is claimed to be partly due to the buffalo. See Blankinship, J. W., The Loco and Some Other Poisonous Plants in Montana, in Mont. Agric. Exper. Sta. Bul. 45, p. 79. 1903.

CLINICAL SYMPTOMS OF LOCOED ANIMALS AS DESCRIBED IN LITERATURE.

The animals usually affected are sheep, horses, cattle, mules,^a donkeys,^b and goats. It is claimed that practically all herbivorous animals are liable to the disease, even antelopes being affected.^c Hogs are said to be unaffected,^d but definite information is lacking. Cows seem to be less sensitive to this form of intoxication.^e The condition is usually a chronic one, although acute cases are said to occur at times. The symptoms consist of digestive disturbances, associated with emaciation and various symptoms suggesting lesions in the nervous system, central or peripheral. The animals lose their appetite from the first, begin to emaciate, and show symptoms of malnutrition and starvation. The head trembles, the gait becomes feeble and uncertain, the eyes become sunken and have a "flat, glassy look."^f There is a general sluggishness, muscular incoordination, and difficulty in motion; finally all control of the limbs is lost and the animal is unable to stand; the coat becomes rough and loses its luster, and, in fact, all the typical symptoms of starvation appear. In some cases diarrhea is also present.

All of Nockolds's animals, however, were constipated and the stools were covered with mucus.^g The dependent portions of the body may swell, simply as an expression of the anæmia.^h Sometimes there are symptoms indicating acute pain,ⁱ the animals running about as if affected with colic. They may belch and their abdomens swell. Some claim that the animals are markedly salivated so that the saliva trickles from their mouths. In other cases the mouth may be dry.^j The eyes may be rolled up so that the whites alone show. In some cases the pupil has been noted to be dilated, as in atropine

^a Kingsley, B. F. The Loco Plant. Daniel's Texas Medical Journal, vol. 3, p. 522. 1888.

^b Schwartzkopff, O. The Effects of "Loco-Weed." Amer. Vet. Rev., vol. 12, p. 162. 1888.

^c McCullaugh, F. A. Locoed Horses. Journ. Comp. Med. & Vet. Archives, vol. 13, p. 435. 1892.

^d Eastwood, A. The Loco Weeds. Zoe, vol. 3, p. 57. 1892.

^e Vasey, G. Plants Poisonous to Cattle in California. Report of Commissioner of Agriculture for 1874, p. 159. 1875.

^f Vasey, G., l. c., p. 159.

^g Nockolds, C. Poisoning by Loco Weed. Amer. Vet. Rev., vol. 20, p. 570. 1896-7.

^h Patterson, A. H. Starvation Edema. Med. Rev., vol. 56, p. 715, 1899.

ⁱ Vasey, G. Botanical Notes, Monthly Reports of Dept. Agriculture for 1873, p. 504. 1874.

^j Anderson, F. W. Poisonous Plants and the Symptoms They Produce. Bot. Gaz., vol. 14, p. 180. 1889.

poisoning,^a but Wilcox states that they are contracted as after the use of eserine.^b The temperature of the animal falls from $\frac{1}{2}$ degree to $1\frac{1}{2}$ degrees F. below normal.^c Tetanic symptoms may occur,^d or the muscles of the mouth and tongue becoming paralyzed may interfere with mastication. When water is offered to the animal, it gazes stupidly at it and may not drink for days. One of the symptoms noted is the loss of power to back properly.^e Cows during the first two or three months of gestation are almost sure to abort.^f This is claimed by Knowles, however, to be due to malnutrition. As a result of these observations, suggesting some uterine action, the drug has been proposed as an emmenagogue.^g

The psychical symptoms are shown by errors of judgment. The animal becomes dull and spiritless and wanders about half dazed. The mental dullness passes into stupor. This dull, stupid condition has been compared to intoxication with opium. If the locoed horse is led across a stick lying on the ground he often jumps high as if it were a great obstacle. The animal may now have maniacal attacks, during which he rears and may fall backward,^h and makes unreasonable jumps and other unexpected movements, thus rendering himself dangerous to man.ⁱ Other symptoms due to disturbances of the central nervous system are hallucinations of various sorts. Though the optic nerve itself is apparently not affected, the animal will stare at an object for a long time without any apparent comprehension of its nature. This disturbance in the visual function McCullaugh claims to be one of the first symptoms of this disease. The animal seems to lose all idea of distance, as he will butt against an obstruction as if oblivious of its presence. Any sudden or violent motion made before him may cause him to fall. According to some,

^a Schwartzkopff, O. The Effects of "Loco-Weed." Amer. Vet. Rev., vol. 12, p. 161. 1888.

^b Wilcox, T. E. Treatment of "Loco" Poisoning in Idaho Territory. Med. Rec., vol. 31, p. 268. 1887.

^c Mayo, N. S. Some Observations Upon Loco. Kans. State Agric. Coll. Bul. 35, p. 118. 1893.

^d McCullaugh, F. A. Locoed Horses. Journ. Comp. Med. and Vet. Archives, vol. 13, p. 436. 1892.

^e O'Brine, D. Progress Bulletin on the Loco and Larkspur. Colo. State Agric. Coll. Bul. 25, p. 12. 1893.

^f Knowles, M. E. Loco Poisoning. Breeders' Gaz., vol. 39, p. 973. 1901.—Sayre, L. E. Loco Weed. Kans. State Board of Agric., 5th Bienn. Rept., p. 211. 1887.—Ruedl, C. Loco Weed. Trans. Colo. State Med. Soc., p. 422. 1895.

^g Miller, C. H. The Loco Weed: Its Probable Usefulness as an Emmenagogue. Southern Clinic, vol. 11, p. 269. 1888.

^h Vasey, G. Botanical Notes. Monthly Reports of Dept. Agriculture for 1873, p. 504. 1874.

ⁱ Parker, W. T. The Loco-Weed. Science, vol. 23, p. 101. 1894.

the animal loses the sense which guides him in finding water. A cow may fail to recognize her calf.^a There is more or less loss of control of the limbs^b and tremors;^c the feet are lifted abnormally high when trotting, and, if crowded, the animal falls headlong and will jump over little hollows as if they were wide ditches.^d The horse may shy without apparent cause and kick at imaginary objects,^e and, in fact, the reasoning powers seem to be lost. These attacks are brought on by sudden excitement or when crossing water.^f There may be cutaneous hyperæsthesia.

The animals may remain with the herd, but they often wander away. Stalker records the following observations:

I have seen a single animal miles away from any other individual of the herd, carefully searching as if for some lost object, and when a loco plant is found he would devour every morsel of it with the greatest relish. As soon as one plant was eaten he would immediately go in search of more, apparently oblivious to everything but the intoxication afforded by his one favorite article of food.^g

All of Nockolds's animals which were locoed were mares more than 6 years of age.^h

According to Stalker there is a passive type in which the animal shows symptoms only on being disturbed; the animal then becomes unmanageable. This happens even with old, well-broken saddle horses.ⁱ

There are few published reports as to the symptoms occurring in sheep which are locoed. Stalker^j says sheep "become loco-eaters, grow stupid, emaciated, and eventually die." One of the few descriptions of the symptoms is that of Ruedi,^k in which he claims that

^a Vasey, G. Botanical Notes. Monthly Reports of Dept. Agriculture for 1874, p. 513. 1875.

^b Anderson, F. W. Poisonous Plants and the Symptoms They Produce. Bot. Gaz., vol. 14, p. 180. 1880.

^c Sayre, L. E. Loco Weed. Proc. Amer. Pharm. Assoc., vol. 36, p. 111. 1888.

^d Nockolds, C. Poisoning by Loco Weed. Amer. Vet. Rev., vol. 20, p. 570. 1896-7.

^e Knowles, M. E. Loco Poisoning. Breeders' Gaz., vol. 39, p. 972. 1901.

^f Vasey, G. Botanical Notes. Monthly Reports of Dept. Agriculture for 1873, p. 504. 1874.

^g Stalker, M. The "Loco" Plant and Its Effect on Animals. Bur. Animal Industry, 3d Ann. Rept. (1886), p. 272. 1887.—Nockolds, C. Poisoning by Loco Weed. Amer. Vet. Rev., vol. 20, p. 570. 1896-7.—Malsch, J. M. Poisonous Species of Astragalus. Amer. Journ. Pharm., vol. 51, p. 239. 1879.

^h Nockolds, C. Poisoning by Loco Weed. Amer. Vet. Rev., vol. 20, p. 570. 1896-7.

ⁱ Stalker, M., l. c., p. 273.

^j Stalker, M., l. c., p. 274.

^k Ruedi, C. Loco Weed (*Astragalus Mollissimus*): A Toxicological Study. Trans. Colo. State Med. Soc., 1895, p. 417.

the symptoms in sheep are those comparable to the symptoms of cerebro-spinal meningitis except that there is an absence of fever. Ruedi speaks of sheep "lying flat on the ground, not able to stand, and not able even to lift their heads to drink the offered water; the head and the vertebra in opisthotonus position; the four legs stretched out and stiff; breathing was stertorous, pulse slow, abdomen much distended, diarrhea present. * * * The heart * * * was very slow and insufficient." The teeth (in sheep) may blacken and fall out.^a

It is mainly the young animals, such as lambs and colts, that are affected, probably due to the fact that their attention is more easily directed to the flower of the loco^b plants. It is claimed (on slight evidence) that men have become locoed. The symptoms in them are nausea and headache.^c

Schuchardt^d has called attention to the resemblance of the symptoms in locoed animals to those which occur in so-called lathyrism, but most observers in this country have especially marked the resemblance of the symptoms to those induced by the habitual use of narcotic drugs.^e

As a rule the loco plants are refused by animals save when there is lack of other food, although at times animals have shown the keenest relish for these plants, rejected all other forage, and devoted their whole attention to searching for the loco plants.^f

Stalker says that animals not too long addicted to the use of these plants, if confined, soon lose their taste for them (after two or three months),^g although old loco eaters do not readily lose the habit. Stalker also says that "it is to be presumed that the plant is possessed

^a Blankinship, J. W. Loco and Some Other Poisonous Plants in Montana. Mont. Agric. Exper. Sta. Bul. 45, p. 81. 1903.

^b Blankinship, J. W., l. c.

^c Day, M. G. Loco-Weed. In F. P. Foster's Reference Book of Practical Therapeutics, vol. 1, p. 588. 1896.—Pilgrim, C. W. Does the Loco-Weed Produce Insanity? Proc. Amer. Medico-Psycholog. Assoc., vol. 5, p. 167. 1898.

^d Schuchardt, B. Die Loco-Krankheit der Pferde und des Rindviehs. Deutsch. Zeits. f. Thiermed., vol. 18, p. 405. 1892.—Parker, W. T. Loco-Weed. Science, vol. 23, p. 101. 1894.

^e McCullaugh, F. A. Locoed Horses. Journ. Comp. Med. and Vet. Archives, vol. 13, p. 435. 1892.

^f Stalker, M. The "Loco" Plant and Its Effect on Animals. Bur. Animal Industry, 3d Ann. Rept. (1886), p. 272. 1887.

^g Stalker, M. The "Loco" Plant and Its Effect on Animals. Bur. Animal Industry, 3d Ann. Rept. (1886), p. 272. 1887.—See also Linfield, F. B. Sheep Feeding, in Mont. Agric. Coll. Exper. Sta. Bul., 59. 1905.—Special Report on Diseases of Cattle. Bur. Animal Industry, 1904, p. 66.—Wilcox, E. V. Plant Poisoning of Stock in Montana. Bur. Animal Industry, 17th Ann. Rept., p. 115. 1900.

of some toxic property that has a specific effect on the nervous centers, and that these effects have a marked tendency to remain permanent.”^a

The fundamental character of the disorder seems to be a progressing anæmia. The interpretation of psychical symptoms in herbivora, and especially on the range, must often be fallacious.

CONDITIONS SIMILAR TO LOCO-WEED POISONING IN OTHER PARTS OF THE WORLD.

According to Maiden^b a condition similar to loco is met with among animals in Australia and is there believed to be due to eating various species of Swainsona.^c As Maiden says, “Its effect on sheep is well known; they separate from the flock, wander about listlessly, and are known to the shepherds as ‘pea-eaters’ or ‘indigo-eaters.’ When once a sheep takes to eating this plant it seldom or never fattens, and may be said to be lost to its owner.” Horses, after eating this herb, “were exceptionally difficult to catch, and it was observed how strange they appeared. Their eyes were staring out of their heads and they were prancing against trees and stumps. The second day two out of nine died, and five others had to be left at the camp.”

Martin^d experimentally studied these cases of intoxication and sums up his work as follows:

1. That one can by feeding sheep upon Darling pea reproduce all the symptoms which are attributed by pastoralists to this cause. Briefly stated these symptoms are: Stupidity, loss of alertness and an agonized expression, followed by stiffness and slight staggering and frequently trembling of the head or limbs. Later, clumsiness and unsteadiness ensue, which slowly advance until the animal often falls down. In this stage, the action of the animal in running over small obstacles is characteristic. It jumps over a twig as if it were a foot in height. When first it commences to tumble about, it is able more or less readily to regain its feet, but in the advanced stage of the disease this is impossible and, after exhausting itself in efforts to do so, it remains lying down until it dies. During the whole time the sheep become progressively more bloodless, and in advanced cases the blood when shed appears to the naked eye lighter in color. It contains fewer red blood-cells (about two-thirds to one-half the usual number). (The corpuscles were estimated in several cases by means of a hæmocytometer.) All these symptoms are much aggravated by driving. Thus, an animal in which the symptoms are little marked may exhibit them in a striking degree after being driven. In addition to the above the teeth

^a Stalker, M., l. c., p. 275.

^b Maiden, J. H. Plants Reputed to be Poisonous to Stock in Australia. Dept. Agric., New South Wales, Misc. Pub. No. 477, pp. 15, 16. 1901.

^c Notes on Some American and Australian Plants Injurious to Stock. Agric. Gaz., New South Wales, vol. 4, p. 677. 1894.—Notes on Weeds. The Darling Pea. Agric. Gaz., New South Wales, vol. 3, p. 330. 1893.

^d Martin, C. J. Report on an Investigation into the Effects of Darling Pea (Swainsona Galegifolia) upon Sheep. Agric. Gaz., New South Wales, vol. 8, p. 366. 1898.

(especially in young sheep) frequently become loose, and consequently displaced or even dislodged.

2. That the time which elapses before the onset of definite symptoms is three to four weeks in sheep of 2 to 3 years old. (It is probable, however, that with younger animals the time is shorter.)

3. That under the conditions of the experiment, the animals survived about three months. They lived, however, an invalid's life. Everything was brought to them, and it is improbable that if feeding exclusively upon the pea, and left to shift for themselves in the paddocks, they would survive more than two months.

4. That if a sheep be returned to proper fodder after one month to six weeks feeding upon the pea, and before the symptoms are fully established, it may recover completely.

5. That when once the paralytic symptoms are established it will not recover; but if returned to proper food, will remain in much the same condition, becoming neither better nor worse.

6. That Darling pea contains a very fair amount of nourishing material so that animals may, provided they eat it readily, retain their condition on it for some weeks, until the poisonous principle contained has had time to exert its effects.

These plants, if fed with other herbage, do not seem to be injurious and apparently lose their harmful action upon being cultivated.^a As long as salt is properly fed the animals will not eat this plant^b and are said to suffer no effects from it. Physiological study has shown the presence of a body with marked sudorific power which causes rapid emaciation in frogs.^c

It has been claimed that these symptoms are due to the presence of a narcotic poison in the plant.^d Post-mortem examinations were negative save for the presence of a peripheral neuritis.^e

^a Woolls, W. On the Forage-Plants Indigenous in New South Wales. Linn. Soc., New South Wales, Proc., vol. 7, pp. 315-316. 1882.

^b Guthrie, F. B., and Turner, F. Supposed Poisonous Plant. Agric. Gaz., New South Wales, vol. 4, p. 86. 1894.

^c Bailey, F. M., and Gordon, P. R. Plants Reputed Poisonous and Injurious to Stock, Brisbane, 1887, p. 25.

^d Guthrie, F. B., and Turner, F. Supposed Poisonous Plant. Agric. Gaz., New South Wales, vol. 4, p. 87. 1894.

^e Martin, C. J. Report on the Investigation into the Effects of Darling Pea (*Swainsona Galegifolia*) upon Sheep. Agric. Gaz., New South Wales, vol. 8, p. 367. 1898. (Further literature on the indigo disease will be found in Bailey, F. M., and Gordon, P. R. Plants Reputed Poisonous and Injurious to Stock, Brisbane, 1887, p. 25).

NOTE.—In Canada a chronic disease associated with cirrhosis of the liver results from eating ragwort, or *Senecio jacobaea*. See Dept. of Agriculture, Canada, Rept. of Veterinary Director General, 1905, Ottawa, 1906, p. 31.—In South Africa a disorder known as nenta appears in goats after eating certain plants, especially *Cotyledon ventricosa*. See Hutcheon, D., Nenta, in Agric. Journ. Cape of Good Hope, vol. 14, p. 862. 1899.

**PATHOLOGICAL CONDITIONS IN LOCOED ANIMALS AS DESCRIBED
ON THE RANGE.**

The pathological features as described by previous writers are a softening and ulceration of the stomach walls^a and a degeneration of the walls of the intestines with or without perforations. The peritoneum may be found inflamed.^b The peritoneum and omentum in one case (cow), reported by Sayre, were covered with small nodules. These were probably tubercular in origin. The colon in one horse was found enormously distended, while the cœcum and small intestines were normal,^c save that the walls appeared thin.

Ulcers have been found at times in the kidneys, but were probably secondary in origin, as other cases are reported with normal kidneys. Faville has found in some cases amyloid degeneration. The pancreas and spleen are reported normal. The abdominal cavity may contain a slight effusion.^d The liver has been found cirrhotic, and at times shows tubercular lesions of a secondary nature. The inner coat of the bladder has been found softened, and in sheep the bladder may be markedly distended at the autopsy. The cerebral membranes are congested and perhaps adherent,^e and there may be blood clots over the longitudinal sinus or at the base of the brain. Effusions have been especially noted around the medulla. The arachnoid has also shown slight congestion, and in other cases the membranes showed a slight thickening. The middle ventricle was found filled with yellow serum, while the fourth ventricle contained a hemorrhagic effusion,^f and the base of the brain was covered by a clot. The hemorrhage may become organized and the brain be held to the membranes by tough organized fibers. In many cases serous effusion is present in the lateral ventricles. The arachnoid space is also in some cases similarly filled. Microscopic examination of the brain in the case of a steer showed atrophy of Purkinje's cells.^g

In sheep the post-mortem examination showed paleness, anæmia of the muscles, and great distention of the abdomen. The intestines

^a Anderson, F. W. *Poisonous Plants and the Symptoms They Produce*. Bot. Gaz., vol. 14, p. 180. 1889.

^b Sayre, L. E. *Loco Weed*. Amer. Vet. Rev., vol. 11, p. 558. 1887.

^c O'Brine, D. *Progress Bulletin on the Loco and Larkspur*. Colo. State Agric. Coll. Bul. 25, p. 12. 1893.

^d Faville, in O'Brine, D. *Progress Bulletin on the Loco and Larkspur*. Colo. State Agric. Coll. Bul. 25, p. 11. 1893.

^e Sayre, L. E. *Loco Weed*. Amer. Vet. Rev., vol. 11, p. 559. 1887.

^f Stalker, M. *The "Loco" Plant and Its Effect on Animals*. Bur. Animal Industry, 3d Ann. Rept. (1886), p. 274. 1887.—Sayre, L. E. *Loco-Weed*. Amer. Pharm. Assoc. Proc., vol. 38, p. 108. 1890.—O'Brine, D. *Progress Bulletin on the Loco and Larkspur*. Colo. State Agric. Coll. Bul. 25, pp. 16, 17. 1893.

^g Mayo, N. S., l. c., p. 118.

were found filled with gases, and the mesenteric blood vessels filled with blood. No peritonitis, or ascites, or ecchymoses in the mucous membranes were noted in the autopsies made on sheep by Ruedi. The liver has been seen enlarged. In sheep the brain was anæmic. Microscopically the brain showed atrophy and the Purkinje's cells disappeared or their processes atrophied. In these sheep the brain was so anæmic that the distinction between the gray and the white matter was hard to define.^a The membranes of the cord have been found inflamed and adherent, but the spinal cord was usually normal.^b In some cases, however, the spinal cord has been found softened^c and cedematous. The arteries of the limbs were gorged with blood,^d and at the same time there was a collection of serum in the abdominal cavity. Death is thought to be due to starvation.^e In other words, the pathological condition, according to published accounts, shows little that is characteristic save some action on the gastro-intestinal tract.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF LOCO INVESTIGATIONS FROM A PHARMACOLOGICAL STANDPOINT.

During the western immigration of 1849 the Indians along the Missouri River described to the immigrants a plant (*Astragalus mollissimus*) producing death in horses and cattle, which was preceded by various forms of excitement.^f

The attention of the United States Department of Agriculture was first called to the toxic action of the loco plants in 1873, when specimens of the plants, which were identified as *Astragalus hornii* and *A. lentiginosus*,^g were sent from California by Mr. O. B. Ormsby, with

^a Ruedi, C. Loco Weed (*Astragalus Mollissimus*): A Toxic-Chemical Study. Trans. Colo. State Med. Soc., 1895, p. 418.

^b Sayre, L. E. Loco Weed. Amer. Vet. Rev., vol. 11, p. 559. 1887.

^c O'Brine, D. Progress Bulletin on the Loco and Larkspur. Colo. State Agric. Coll. Bul. 25, p. 12. 1893.—Klench, J. P. Rattleweed or Loco Disease. Amer. Vet. Rev., vol. 12, p. 399. 1888.

^d Anderson, F. W. Poisonous Plants and the Symptoms They Produce. Bot. Gaz., vol. 14, p. 180. 1889.

^e McCullaugh, F. A. Locoed Horses. Journ. Comp. Med. and Vet. Archives, vol. 13, p. 436. 1892.

^f Storke, B. F. The Loco Weed. Med. Current, vol. 8, p. 155. 1892.—Kellogg, A. California and Colorado "Loco" Poisons. Cal. Acad. Sci. Proc. for 1875, vol. 6, p. 3. 1876.

NOTE.—The very early reports of these loco plants were purely botanical. See Torrey, J., Botany, in Report on the United States and Mexican Boundary Survey, by W. H. Emory, vol. 2, p. 56, 1859; also Botanical Register, London, vol. 13, pl. 1054, 1827.

^g Vasey, G. Plants Poisonous to Cattle in California. Rept. of Commissioner of Agriculture for 1874, p. 159. 1875.

the statement that they were poisonous to stock, especially to horses. Mrs. J. S. Whipple also corroborated this information. The botanist of the Department, Dr. George Vasey,^a published a note and requested further information concerning the plants. These notes were enlarged by a similar contribution by Dr. P. Moffat on *Aragallus lamberti*.^b The following year Vasey reported with more fullness, and his description of the action of the plants is substantially what we find in most of the books of to-day.

In 1876 Lemmon^c noted that *Astragalus mortoni* was "a deadly sheep poison." At the same time Rothrock,^d botanist of the United States Geographical Survey under Lieutenant Wheeler, described these plants, and Kellogg,^e a botanist in California, reported that *Astragalus menziesii* was causing great losses in horses, sheep, and cattle and claimed that the stockmen had been familiar with this disorder for at least ten or fifteen years. This report of Kellogg was followed by that of Rothrock^f in 1877.

In 1876 a specimen of *Aragallus lamberti* was sent from Colorado to Professor Prescott, of the University of Michigan, under the name of "crazy weed," with the statement that it was poisonous to horses and cattle and that, while the Mexicans often used it in making beer, it sometimes caused symptoms in men. His pupil, Miss Watson, undertook a study of its chemical properties. She failed to isolate any pure chemical compound, but claimed that in the root there was a body giving alkaloidal reactions and that there was also a resinous body present. Another of his pupils, W. R. Birdsall, took the ground-up root himself in doses of 20 grains at various intervals for several days and later 40-grain doses in one and a half hours, but without experiencing any marked symptoms except colicky pains. A kitten also was given about one and a half ounces of the fluid extract without effect. Prescott^g sums up by saying that "it would seem that the dried ground root possesses no poisonous properties." The work of Miss Watson was considered of sufficient importance to be abstracted

^a Vasey, G. Botanical Notes. Monthly Reports of Dept. Agriculture for 1873, p. 503. 1874.

^b Vasey, G. Botanical Notes. Monthly Reports of Dept. Agriculture for 1874, p. 513. 1875.

^c Brewer, W. H., and Watson, S. Geological Survey of California, Botany, vol. 1, p. 155. 1876.

^d Rothrock, J. T. Notes on Economic Botany, in G. M. Wheeler's Report upon U. S. Geographical Surveys West of the One Hundredth Meridian, vol. 6, p. 43. 1878.

^e Kellogg, A. California and Colorado Loco Poisons. Cal. Academy of Sciences, Proc., 1875, vol. 6, p. 3. 1876.

^f Rothrock, J. T. Poisonous Properties of the Leguminosæ. Acad. of Nat. Sci., Phila., Proc., vol. 29, p. 274. 1877.

^g Prescott, A. B. Laboratory Notes—A Partial Analysis of the *Oxytropis Lambertii*. Amer. Journ. Pharm., vol. 50, p. 564. 1878.

in the Annual Report of the Commissioner of Agriculture for 1878 (1879), page 134.

Gradually the Department of Agriculture became more and more interested in this subject, and Peter Collier, chief chemist, in 1878, examined the roots and leaves of *Aragallus lamberti* for alkaloids, but found none.^a

In 1880 Peter Collier published a proximate analysis of *Astragalus mollissimus* made by Francis A. Wentz, of Kansas. His investigations showed it to have an ash content of 6.76 per cent, while the *Aragallus lamberti*, analyzed by L. F. Dyrenforth, of Chicago, showed an ash content of 4.32 per cent. Collier^b sums up by saying:

From the additional work done at this Department it seems probable that the deleterious effects observed from animals eating this plant may be due principally to the fact that the sweet taste causes cattle to reject more nutritious food and strive to subsist upon the *Oxytropis* only. This plant is mechanically a very unfit substance for food, being of a tough, fibrous, and indigestible character. It is possible that, when the animal becomes somewhat enfeebled by lack of proper nourishment, the small amount of alkaloid may have a direct poisonous action. Again, it seems probable that the plant may contain much larger proportions of alkaloid at certain stages in its development than at others, or the seeds may prove to be the most injurious portion.

The departmental work was continued by further short notices by Vasey^c in 1884, 1886, and 1887, and by the report of Stalker in 1887. This report by Stalker is still the best description on the clinical side of the question.

Rothrock,^d meeting the loco plants in his survey work, describes their effects on animals as follows:

Certain it is, however, that, once commenced, they continue it, passing through temporary intoxication to a complete nervous and muscular wreck in the later stages, when it has developed into a fully marked disease which terminates in death from starvation or inability to digest a more nourishing food. The animal toward the last becomes stupid or wild, or even vicious, or, again, acting as though attacked with "blind staggers."

Under the name of *Crotalaria*, H. Gibbons,^e in 1879, refers to a plant growing in California which it was claimed was producing characteristic symptoms of poisoning in horses and sheep. This plant Professor Maisch afterwards identified as *Aragallus lamberti*.

^a Rept. of Commissioner of Agriculture for 1878, p. 134. 1879.

^b Rept. of Commissioner of Agriculture for 1879, pp. 89, 90. 1880.

^c Rept. of Commissioner of Agriculture for 1886, p. 75. 1887. Rept. of Commissioner of Agriculture for 1884, p. 123. 1884.

^d Rothrock, J. T. Notes on Economic Botany, in G. M. Wheeler's Report upon U. S. Geographical Surveys West of the One Hundredth Meridian, vol. 6, p. 43. 1878.

^e Gibbons, H. Poisonous Effects of *Crotalaria*—Vulgo Rattle Weed, Loco Weed. Pacific Med. and Surg. Journ., vol. 21, p. 496. 1878-79.

Dr. Isaac Ott^a undertook the physiological study of the question and used an alcoholic extract of *Astragalus mollissimus*. He found from its action on frogs, rabbits, and cats that the plant had decided physiological action, as follows:

- (1) It decreases the irritability of the motor nerves.
- (2) Greatly affects the sensory ganglia of the central nervous system, preventing them from readily receiving impressions.
- (3) Has a spinal tetanic action.
- (4) Kills mainly by arrest of the heart.
- (5) Increases the salivary secretion.
- (6) Has a stupefying action on the brain.
- (7) Reduces the cardiac force and frequency.
- (8) Temporarily increases arterial tension, but finally decreases it.
- (9) It greatly dilates the pupil.

Doctor Stockman, in England, about this time tried the action of the aqueous and alcoholic extracts of the dried *Astragalus mollissimus* sent from Texas. He experimented with frogs and rabbits in increasing doses, but without result.^b

In 1888 Hill reported that a species of *Astragalus* was acting detrimentally on cattle, goats, and sheep in Cyprus and that these animals fell down as if intoxicated, and also that the natives in time of great drought feed their cattle with this plant mixed with straw, but that they were always made sick until they became used to it.

In 1885 Professor Sayre, of the University of Kansas, undertook the investigation of the loco question. His first report was made in the Transactions of the Kansas Academy of Sciences for 1885, and his reports have been continued at various periods up to 1904. The results of his experiments on various animals—dogs, cats, and frogs^c—have been entirely negative. He administered alcoholic preparations to himself and took them until they became too nauseous to continue, and found they produced absolutely no symptoms besides the nausea. He suggests, however, that if the plant really is poisonous it is due to its fine hairs, which might mechanically cause death. Sayre has stated that he has sent thousands of pounds of the dried loco plants to various investigators in America and Europe, but all reports were negative as to pharmacological activity. He has, however, done some work on the pure chemistry of the plant and found that the plant contained 10 per cent of moisture and yielded 12.01 per cent of ash. Of this ash, 25 per cent was soluble in water, while 50.6 per cent was soluble in HCl. The insoluble portion consisted

^a Ott, I. Physiological Action of *Astragalus Mollissimus*. New Remedies, vol. 11, p. 227. 1882.

^b Hill, J. R. Note on a Species of *Astragalus* from Cyprus. Pharm. Journ. and Trans., 3 s., vol. 18, p. 712. 1887-88.

^c Sayre, L. E. Loco-Weed. Proc. Amer. Pharm. Assoc., vol. 36, p. 112. 1888.

largely of silica. He found CaO , K_2O , MgO , Al_2O_3 , and Fe_2O_3 , with the acid radicals SO_3 , Cl , P_2O_5 , CO_2 , and SiO_2 .^a Although Sayre claims that the plant is physiologically inactive, he tried by chemical means to isolate a physiologically active body and, naturally enough under the circumstances, failed to find one. He claims that while the plant might give alkaloid reactions, he was unable to isolate this body in a pure state, and that alfalfa reacted similarly.

The investigation on animals was continued by Kennedy.^b He administered an infusion of $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce of green *Astragalus mollissimus* to a fasting dog weighing 23 pounds, but there were no symptoms after 12 hours. A decoction of 1 ounce of the green plant and one of 4 ounces of the dried plant were likewise without action. Extracts with hydrochloric acid were also inactive. When 400 grams of the dried and powdered plant were fed in substance the result was merely to increase the appetite. The organic acid obtained from 4 ounces of the plant was also found to be inert.

Kennedy did not state in what season the plant was collected and from what locality it was obtained, but says simply that the plant extract was inactive to a dog, a carnivorous animal, and that therefore the plant is nonpoisonous. He adds that death might be due to the tough fibers and indigestible character of the plant. He overlooks, however, the fact that the plant might vary in its toxicity, and he infers from the experiments on carnivorous animals that these results would hold good for herbivora, yet he does not claim that carnivora become locoed in nature.

Kennedy found that the plant lost 80 per cent in weight on drying and that the water extract which represented 30.6 per cent of the powdered and dried plant contained magnesium sulphate and sodium chlorid, tannic acid, gum, coloring matter, an extractive, and a "peculiar organic acid." The ashed plant yielded 20 per cent of ash, consisting of magnesium sulphate, sodium chlorid, alumina, silica, and a trace of iron. "The abundant precipitate produced by the alkaline hydrates, potassium, sodium, and ammonium was found to consist of magnesium hydrate, an abundance of this base being present in the plant." Kennedy also obtained alkaloidal reactions, but failed to isolate the body giving these reactions.

In 1889 the investigations were greatly stimulated by the report of Doctor Day,^c then of the University of Michigan. She claimed that she was able to produce marked physiological symptoms, using both *Astragalus mollissimus* and *Aragallus lamberti* in her work. She

^a Sayre, L. E. *Loco Weed*. Amer. Vet. Rev., vol. 11, p. 556. 1887.

^b Kennedy, J. *Loco Weed* (Crazy Weed). Pharm. Rec., vol. 8, p. 197. 1888.

^c Day, M. G. *Experimental Demonstrations of the Toxicity of the "Loco Weed."* N. Y. Med. Journ., vol. 49, p. 237. 1889.

administered daily 60 to 70 c. c. of a decoction^a of the plants to kittens, together with abundant milk and other food. She states that in two days—

The kittens became less active, the coat grew rough, appetite for ordinary food diminished and fondness for the "loco" increased, diarrhea came on, and retching and vomiting occasionally occurred. The expression became peculiar and characteristic. Emaciation and the above symptoms progressively increased until the eighteenth day, when periods of convulsive excitement supervened. At times the convulsions were tetanic in character; frothing at the mouth and throwing the head backward as in opisthotonus were marked. At other times the kitten would stand on its hind legs and strike the air with its forepaws, then fall backward and throw itself from side to side. These periods of excitement were followed by perfect quiet, the only apparent sign of life being the respiratory movements. After a short interval of quiet the convulsive movements would recur. These alternate periods of excitement and quiet lasted thirty-six hours, when the posterior extremities became paralyzed, and the kitten died about two hours afterward. There was no apparent loss of consciousness before death.

The post-mortem examination revealed the presence of ulcers in the stomach and duodenum. Some of the ulcers had nearly perforated the walls of the stomach and duodenum. The heart was in diastole; brain and myel appeared normal. As might be expected from the emaciated condition, the entire body was anæmic.

In a second case 60 to 70 cubic centimeters of a more concentrated decoction were fed daily, with other food as before, to a vigorous adult cat. The symptoms of inactivity, loss of appetite, rough coat, diarrhea, and the peculiar expression of countenance were as in the first case. By the twelfth day the cat was wasted almost to a skeleton, and was correspondingly weak. Paralysis of the hind limbs came on, and the cat died on the thirteenth day. There were no periods of excitement in this case.

These cats developed a craving for the decoction and "would beg for it as an ordinary kitten does for milk, and when supplied would lie down contented."

Doctor Day made controls with healthy animals under the same conditions, with the exception that they received no loco plant. She also fed a young wild jack rabbit on milk and grass for a few days and then substituted fresh loco plants for grass.

At first the "loco" was refused, but after two or three days the "loco" was eaten with as much relish as the grass had been. After ten days of the milk and "loco" diet the rabbit was found dead, with the head thrown back and the stomach ruptured.

Subcutaneous injections of the concentrated decoction caused nervous twitchings in frogs and kittens, and if large amounts were used death followed in from one to two hours from paralysis of the heart. The same symptoms were produced in frogs by the injection of an alcoholic extract of the residue left after the evaporation to dryness of the decoction.

In other words, Doctor Day was able to produce a chronic form of loco poisoning with the characteristic symptoms so often described

^a Presumably a 10 per cent decoction, U. S. P.

save in the occurrence of diarrhea. Diarrhea is not usually noted on the range. Sayre had already reported an ulcerated condition of the intestines of a locoed cow similar to that described by Doctor Day as occurring in cats. Doctor Day urged that the reason previous experimenters failed to produce symptoms was that they had used too small an amount of the plant and that by systematic feeding to healthy cats cases of loco disease may be produced.

Storke states that "Dr. V. C. Vaughan, of the University of Michigan, has since fully corroborated Dr. Day's views."^a

In her experiments Doctor Day used the leaves, roots, and stems of the plants gathered in September. She believed that the greatest amount of poison is present in autumn and winter. She later undertook the isolation of the active principle, and proceeded as follows:^b

The roots, stems, and leaves were boiled ten hours, strained, and the decoction concentrated to a sirup, poured, while hot, into a hot flask, corked and set away. At the end of ten days the sirup had separated into two layers—the upper a blackish liquid, the lower a brownish sediment. The liquid was poured into a flask and covered with six times its volume of very dilute alcohol, 30 per cent (the sediment also was washed with dilute alcohol, to insure a complete removal of the liquid), corked, and let stand three days; agitated occasionally, then filtered, and the filtrate slowly evaporated in the air, when crystals were formed. It was found important not to hurry the evaporation, for when this took place too rapidly the crystals did not form.

These crystals are microscopic in size, blue-white in color, and of a variety of forms. The most characteristic are slender and pointed, arranged in rosettes or grouped in various ways. They are soluble in distilled water and very dilute alcohol, very sparingly soluble in strong alcohol, not soluble in chloroform or ether.

The evaporated mass containing the crystals, when dissolved in distilled water, is slightly acid in reaction. A small amount of this fed to a kitten produced the train of characteristic toxic symptoms—sleepiness, loss of appetite, retching, and diarrhea—that is produced by quite large amounts of the decoction.

The crystals Sayre^c claims to have already seen. He says that they gave no precipitate with Mayer's reagent, platinum chlorid, or with ammonia, but that barium chlorid and ammonium oxalate gave a precipitate, and he believes that they were in reality an inorganic combination of calcium, so that while Doctor Day may have obtained an extract which produced characteristic symptoms she certainly has not isolated any pure active principle. Later she admitted that it was

^a Storke, B. F. *The Loco Weed*. *Med. Current*, vol. 8, p. 157. 1892.

^b Day, M. G. *The Separation of the Poison of the "Loco Weed."* *N. Y. Med. Journ.*, vol. 50, p. 604. 1889.

^c Sayre, L. E. *Active Principle of Loco Weed*. *Notes on New Remedies*, vol. 2, No. 12, p. 1.

not possible "to make positive statements as to the chemical character of the active principle."^a

In 1884 there was a fatal outbreak of a disorder in horses in portions of the Missouri Valley in Iowa, Nebraska, and Dakota. This was almost uniformly fatal in a few weeks or months. The animals lost strength and became emaciated, although they were kept in pasture where there was abundant grass. There was marked stupor, the animals falling asleep while eating, and they "would remain standing for a whole week, sleeping much of the time, with the head resting upon some object." The post-mortem examination showed that "in every instance there was marked hemorrhagic effusion into the fourth ventricle, the liver and spleen were abnormally dense, the walls of the intestines were almost destitute of blood, and the stomach enormously distended with undigested food." The post-mortem find and clinical symptoms suggested to Stalker^b that this disorder was due to some plant analogous to *Astragalus mollissimus*. He found abundant in these regions *Crotalaria sagittalis*, or rattle-box, one of the so-called loco weeds, and by the administration per os to a young horse of an infusion of 15 pounds of the plant, given in two days, produced the clinical symptoms and the post-mortem condition of the brain which he previously observed on the range.

Power and Cambier^c undertook the chemical study and the isolation of the active principle of this plant, together with that of *Astragalus mollissimus*. They found that the *Astragalus mollissimus* if distilled with water yielded a distillate which possessed a peculiar odor, which they thought due to a trace of volatile oil. On distilling with alkali they obtained ammonia and a trace of trimethylamine. In the case of *Crotalaria* only ammonia was found.^d They argued that because trimethylamine was not obtained in this case choline was not present. On distilling the *Astragalus mollissimus* with acidulated water (H_2SO_4) the distillate was found to contain acetic acid—settling the nature of the "peculiar organic acid" described by Kennedy. From this plant they obtained a resin or mixture of resinous bodies by extracting the plant with alcohol, and after concentration precipitating with acid water. These resins in doses of from 2 to 5 grains failed to produce any symptoms in kittens.

^a Day, M. G. Loco Weed, in F. P. Foster's Reference-Book of Practical Therapeutics, vol. 1, p. 588. 1896.

^b Stalker, M. 1st Ann. Rept. State Vet. Surg. Iowa, p. 16. 1885.

^c Power, F. B., and Cambier, J. Chemical Examination of Some Loco-Weeds. Pharm. Rundschau, vol. 9, p. 8. 1891.—Power, F. B. Notes on the So-called Loco Weeds. Pharm. Rundschau, vol. 7, p. 134, 1889.—See also Hoffmann, F., Loco-Weeds, in Pharm. Rundschau, vol. 7, p. 168. 1889.

^d Kennedy, J. Pharm. Rec., vol. 8, p. 197. 1888. Kennedy also obtained ammonia from *Astragalus mollissimus*.

An albuminoid which was obtained by precipitating a concentrated aqueous extract of *Astragalus mollissimus* by means of alcohol likewise was found to be inactive to a kitten in doses corresponding to 50 grams of the crude plant. A globulin which was isolated by precipitation from a 10 per cent sodium chlorid solution proved also to be inactive in doses of 0.2 gram. They then extracted 3 kilograms of these plants with $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent sulphuric acid, and after evaporation to a thick gum the mass was extracted with strong alcohol, the alcoholic solution was evaporated, and the alcoholic residue taken up in water and precipitated by neutral and basic lead acetates, and after removing the lead with sulphureted hydrogen the filtrate gave precipitates with various alkaloidal reagents. The sirupy residue which they obtained from *Astragalus mollissimus* by decomposing the precipitate with Mayer's solution administered to kittens in doses of 0.1 gram produced merely frothing at the mouth with profuse flow of saliva, but the animals soon recovered. The presence of a large amount of calcium was shown but not estimated quantitatively.

Power and Cambier summed up their conclusions by stating that both the *Astragalus* and the *Crotalaria* contain very small amounts of toxic alkaloids, to which they believe the symptoms of poisoning produced were due. Their work from a chemical standpoint is excellent, but from a pharmacological point of view seems to be deficient; in fact, Power does not claim to be a pharmacologist. What would seem to be the proper course would have been to test for themselves the action of the plant on various animals and, after deciding which reacted most characteristically, test, after various precipitations, both the precipitates and filtrates on various animals to see whether the original symptoms and pathological lesions could be produced. They failed, however, to test their mother substance. It is well recognized that plants grown under varying conditions and on different soils vary in the amount of the physiologically active principle they contain.

In the case of *Crotalaria*, Power and Cambier had before them the experiment of Stalker, in which he reproduced the disorder by feeding the plant extract to horses, yet they claimed that the body which they administered was the active principle, merely because it produced some frothing at the mouth and salivation in a kitten. The percentage of active principle they found would be too small to account for the symptoms, except in the case of a very active compound.

Certain of these precipitates were also later examined physiologically by O'Brine.^a He also found the resin precipitated from an

^a O'Brine, D. Progress Bulletin on the Loco and Larkspur. Colo. State Agric. Coll. Bul. 25, p. 18. 1893.

alcoholic extract of the plant and also the alcoholic extract from 2.2 pounds of the dried *Astragalus mollissimus* to be physiologically inactive.

Oatman,^a using Power and Cambier's method with alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*), obtained a noncrystalline mass which when given in 0.1 gram dose caused frothing at the mouth in a kitten, but no serious symptoms. This 0.1 gram represented about 5 pounds of powdered leaves and tops of the plants.

Since the appearance of Power and Cambier's work Sayre has published various papers on the loco weeds in the Transactions of the Kansas Academy of Sciences for 1903-4, vol. 19, p. 194, 1905; 1901-2, vol. 18, p. 141; Seventh Biennial Report of the State Board of Agriculture of Kansas, vol. 12, p. 97, 1891; Journal of the Kansas Medical Society, vol. 4, pp. 222 and 241, 1904, etc. He has contributed nothing especially new, but says that "the old theory that an alkaloidal poison is secreted in the plant causing the loco trouble has not been found tenable," but wishes to be understood that he does not discredit the ground for the opinion that in some mysterious way certain disorders occur in cattle in connection with what is commonly called loco weed. He suggests that this connection might be somewhat similar to the relationship between the disorder caused by over-feeding half-starved animals on clover or alfalfa^b and has had the plant analyzed as to its nutritive value, giving the table in the Transactions of the Kansas Academy of Sciences, vol. 19, p. 194. He makes the suggestion that any injurious action the plants may have might be due to the fine, hair-like projections on the plant which mechanically set up irritation. This supposition can be thrown out at once by the experiment of Day and others, who induced symptoms in animals by extracts of the plant, and by the fact that other coarse plants do not act similarly. This fine, hair-like material was found to constitute about 33 per cent of the plant on grinding. But Sayre himself does not seem to be positive as to any conclusion. He, like O'Brine and others, has obtained alkaloidal reactions from the plant, but states he has obtained similar ones from alfalfa.^c At one time he said:

I do not consider loco directly or indirectly the cause of the condition, but am of the opinion that what is called "locoed" is, first, congestion of the brain and spinal marrow (causing blindness and first symptoms), and, second,

^a Oatman, H. C. The Poisonous Principle of Loco Weed. Notes on New Remedies, vol. 4, p. 14. 1891-92.

^b Sayre, L. E. Loco Weed. Kans. Acad. Sci. Trans., vol. 18, p. 141. 1903.

^c Sayre, L. E. Loco Weeds. 7th Bienn. Rept. Kans. State Board Agric. for 1889-90, vol. 12, pt. 2, p. 99. 1891.

softening to a greater or less extent.^a These terms describing the alleged symptoms of "locoism" might occur in well recognized diseases resulting from brain lesions, which latter occur in so-called forage poisoning and poisoning from foul drinking water, etc.

We are not prepared to affirm or deny that the loco weed produces a train of symptoms characteristic of the plant.^b

Again Sayre states:

It seems not unreasonable to suppose that the peculiar condition of the animals of the plains, when they gorge themselves with this highly nitrogenous weed, has something to do with the disease. A condition of malnutrition may set in and give rise to the rapid growth of a toxic-producing micro-organism or an irritating principle. This principle may be capable of cultivation and of producing disease artificially. Be this as it may, we feel warranted in saying that the so-called poison is a development within the animal, not a product preexisting in the weed itself.

Sayre also suggests the possibility of the plants producing hydrocyanic acid, which, it is well known, occurs in sorghum.^c In the Journal of the Kansas Medical Society (vol. 4, p. 243), he claims to have isolated a crystalline body, but this he has not tested physiologically. Sayre especially deserves credit for keeping the loco investigation alive, and no doubt his change in position is due to his lack of facilities for pharmacological testing.

Carl Ruedi^d fed rabbits daily by a stomach tube with 10 c. c. of an extract (unstated strength) of *Astragalus mollissimus* and recorded the following results:

After only five injections one of the rabbits died, and the post-mortem showed to a nicety the congestion of the whole tract of the vena portæ and the anæmia of the brain. I put six rabbits under the influence of loco, and the effect was marked, but not rapid, if not given in very concentrated solutions. The solutions were prepared differently, and each of the rabbits had its own preparation, but the effect was nearly the same. In the beginning loco acts as a stimulant; the animals get lively, hilarious, running about, cleaning themselves, etc. This lasts about eight hours, then they become very quiet, sit in a corner of a box, and one can do with them pretty nearly what one likes; they do not move from the place, or just run into another corner, to fall back into the same complacent reverie. One can leave the door open and hammer away at the box, but they do not show any inclination to run away. During the excitement, however, they become fierce, and I had once the opportunity to watch one of the drollest things possible: One of the rabbits, two hours after dosing it, got

^a Sayre, L. E. Further Report on Loco Weeds. Notes on New Remedies, vol. 4, p. 80. 1891-92.

^b Sayre, L. E. The Loco Disease. Journ. Kans. Med. Soc., vol. 4, pp. 241-243. 1904.—What is Insanity in Lower Animals? Journ. Kans. Med. Soc., vol. 4, p. 222. 1904.

^c Sayre, L. E. Loco Weed. Kans. Acad. Sci. Trans., vol. 18, p. 144. 1903.

^d Ruedi, C. Loco Weed (*Astragalus Mollissimus*): A Toxic-Chemical Study. Trans. Colo. State Med. Soc., p. 418. 1895.—Also Treatment of Animals Poisoned by Loco Weed (unpublished article).

loose and ran under a porch. A heavy tomcat came near this hole, and commenced sniffing about; this offended the rabbit highly, and it jumped on the neck of the cat, bit it through the skin, and the cat ran screaming away. When the animals are first under the influence of moderate doses of loco, they suffer greatly from hyperæsthesia of the cutaneous nerves; when one touches them with a stick while lying in a corner, without hurting them, one sees the platysma working away very forcibly, and sometimes they utter sounds of pain. According to my experiments the loco weed works slowly but surely; as soon as the anæmia of the brain sets in, the animals act in every respect mad like; one hour they are excitable, and then again dull and languid as can be. The rabbits eat, when well, very quickly, and whenever they have opportunity; not so the locoed rabbit; he eats slowly for a minute or two, then he goes into a corner and meditates, comes forward to nibble at a carrot or a piece of cabbage, but he never eats greedily, and does not steal it from the mouth of his neighbor, or only very exceptionally. I observed these rabbits for ten days; they did not die, because I gave them weaker solutions; but they all became very ill, and as I had to leave the park I killed them with the needle inserted into the medulla oblongata, and made the post-mortem. In all of these cases I found great congestion in the abdomen, and marked anæmia of the brain. The congestion of the vena portæ commences certainly very early, but still the first symptoms are the nervous symptoms, first as excitants, then depressing or sedative, with a marked hyperæsthesia of the cutaneous nerves.

Ruedi made an attempt to isolate the active principle and separated a base, which he calls "locoïn," from an ether shaking. This base, however, he found to be physiologically inactive, but believes the activity to be due to a body which he calls "loco-acid," which is present in the mother liquid after the shaking with ether. He, however, has not obtained this in any degree of purity and gives no chemical data to substantiate this statement save that the fluid was acid.

Experiments made at the University of Pennsylvania with certain loco plants on cats, dogs, and rabbits proved negative.^a

Other experiments on rabbits have been made by Doctor Lewis. These rabbits were fed on the leaves, stem, and whole plant, and also extracts of one of the loco plants (presumably *Astragalus mollissimus*) for one or two months, without producing any noticeable effect.^b

This uncertainty in the results of the investigation as to the cause of the loco disease turned the attention of observers into other lines. President Ingersoll,^c of the State Agricultural College of Colorado, in his autopsies on sheep was struck by the presence of tapeworms (*Taenia expansa*) in the gall duct and small intestines. He apparently tried to prove a relationship between the tapeworms and the locoed condition by feeding the extract of a loco plant to sheep, and thus showing its harmlessness. He prepared a decoction from 20 pounds of loco plant

^a The "Loco Disease." Therap. Gaz., vol. 12, p. 30. 1888.

^b Sayre, L. E. Loco Weed. Kans. Acad. Sci. Trans., vol. 18, p. 142. 1903.

^c Sayre, L. E. Loco Weeds. 7th Bien. Rept. Kansas State Board Agric. for 1889-1890, pt. 2, p. 98. 1891.

(the species was not stated) and boiled this down from 12 gallons to 1 quart. This concentrated extract was fed in three days to a bottle-fed lamb; this lamb showed no symptoms, although kept under observation for two weeks. This theory of the causation of loco by worms was also considered by Curtice,^a and later brought forward by Steele^b and Marshall.^c This idea is very suggestive when considered in relation to the etiology of bothriocephalous anæmia.^d

Others, again, have claimed that the disease is due to a parasite found upon the loco plants, but all specimens examined by entomologists proved to be harmless.^e

Lloyd, from his study of the subject, says:

From first to last I have failed in obtaining a characteristic proximate principle, either from the fresh or dried plant. The disease called loco was as murky as the milk sickness so prevalent in the new settlements of Indiana and Kentucky in early days, and, like the numberless herbs that have been presumed to produce that obscure peculiar disease, milk sickness, loco was unresponsive to my chemistry.^f

It may be safely said that if a specimen of the plant were to be examined in the ordinary manner by a chemist who had no idea of its importance he would report that it did not contain a characteristic proximate constituent.^g

Can it be that an admixture of loco and some undetermined plant or earth infected with bacteria taken with the roots, each innocuous under other conditions, can by digestion together in the stomach and intestines result in the production of a poison?^h

To sum up, it seems to the writer that the poison of loco is a product, and not an educt.ⁱ

^a Curtice, C. Tape-Worm Disease of Sheep of the Western Plains. Bur. Animal Industry, 4th and 5th Ann. Rept., p. 167. 1889.

^b Steele, C. D. New Theory about Loco. Farm and Ranch, vol. 20, No. 35, p. 1. 1901.

^c Marshall, H. T. Loco Weed Disease of Sheep. Johns Hopkins Hospital Bul., vol. 15, p. 181. 1904.—Data as to these parasites of sheep may be found in Curtice, C., The Animal Parasites of Sheep, Bur. Animal Industry, Rept., 1890.

^d Faust, E. S., and Tallquist, T. W. Ueber d. Ursachen der Bothriocephalus-anämie. Arch. f. Exp. Path., vol. 57, p. 367. 1907.

^e Walshia Amorphella and the Loco Weed. Insect Life, vol. 2, p. 50. 1889-90. Snow, F. H. Loco-Weed. Science, vol. 9, p. 92. 1887.

^f Lloyd, J. U. Loco, or Crazy Weed. Eclectic Med. Journ., vol. 53, p. 482. 1893.

^g Lloyd, J. U., l. c., p. 483.

^h Lloyd, J. U., l. c., p. 484.

NOTE.—Eccles had previously announced a somewhat similar idea. Sayre, L. E. Loco Weed. Proc. Amer. Pharm. Assoc., vol. 36, p. 115. 1889.

ⁱ Lloyd, J. U., l. c., p. 486.

But Lloyd adds, in speaking of the reports of various experts and ranchmen:

Their description concerning its toxic action on animals agreed, and it was folly to argue that so many observers from so many sections of the country could be misled. There must be an undetermined something behind the loco weed.^a

In 1893 O'Brine, from Colorado, and Mayo, from Kansas, reported on their work with the loco plants. O'Brine failed to isolate any alkaloidal or other poisonous body, and his feeding experiments on himself and on rabbits having failed, he sums up in despair: "The more I examine the loco question, the more I am persuaded that we must look for some other cause besides the loco weed."^b At the end of his report he gives some ash analyses but fails to interpret them. He also fails to give details as to the method of obtaining and estimating his ash. O'Brine's ash analyses are as follows:

Plant.	Total ash.	SiO ₂ .	Fe ₂ O ₃ and Al ₂ O ₃ .	CaO.	MgO.	K ₂ O.	Na ₂ O.	H ₂ SO ₄ .	Cl.	P ₂ O ₅ .	CO ₂ .
<i>Astragalus mollissimus</i> (whole plant)	12.15	32.77	16.26	6.05	3.11	13.30	3.21	3.9	0.47	6.12	10.55
<i>Aragallus lamberti</i> (whole plant)	13.52	17.08	12.21	14.27	2.62	17.26	5.75	3.22	3.87	3.30	17.47
<i>Astragalus caryocarpus</i>	12.36	7.82	5.97	12.10	3.55	23.35	3.38	5.56	9.0	4.67	20.62

These analyses are evidently incorrect, as O'Brine estimates a carbon content of 4.13 per cent for the first, and for the second 2.22 per cent, showing incomplete combustion.

Mayo^c experimented with alcoholic and aqueous extracts of dried *Astragalus mollissimus* on guinea pigs, with negative results, and was first led to deny a relationship between the disease and the plants. Later, as a result of the post-mortem findings, he was convinced that his first conclusion was wrong and that "the disease is certainly the result of animals feeding upon the loco weed." Mayo says:

A careful survey of the experiments performed and observations noted leads me to the opinion that the disease known as "loco" is the result of malnutrition, or a gradual starvation, caused by the animals eating the plants known as "loco weeds," either *Astragalus mollissimus* or *Aragallus lamberti*. If there is a narcotic principle in the plant, chemists have failed to find it and a fluid extract does not possess it, and a ton of the plant eaten by an animal ought to contain enough of the poisonous properties to destroy an animal.

^a Lloyd, J. U., l. c., p. 483.

^b O'Brine, D. Progress Bulletin on the Loco and Larkspur. Colo. State Agric. Coll. Bul. 25, p. 17. 1893.

^c Mayo, N. S. Some Observations on Loco. Kans. State Agric. Coll. Bul. 35, p. 116. 1893.

Kobert ^a has also tested the activity of *Astragalus mollissimus* and says, "Ich fand *Astragalus mollissimus* ziemlich unwirksam."

Doctor McEackran ^b fed dried *Astragalus mollissimus* and *Aragallus lamberti* mixed with feed to a stabled animal for two months without result. (Animal not stated).^c Similar negative experiments are reported from the State of Washington, but the amounts used were too small to form any conclusions.^d

Mr. V. K. Chesnut ^e has busied himself with the loco problem, but mainly in an executive capacity, his own efforts being directed to the study of the relation of the loco plants to the disease on the range. He has done no laboratory work. Chesnut and Wilcox made numerous autopsies on sheep and experiments on animals. They claimed that an extract of *Aragallus spicatus* produced some slight narcotic action in rabbits. Their pathological examinations failed to show any characteristic lesion, but they state that the cerebral membranes were in all cases slightly congested. They deny any causative relationship to the presence of worms or with feeding upon alkalis. They believe that sheep are more likely to become locoed if not salted regularly. Chesnut describes one case in which a lamb became locoed by nursing from a locoed mother.

In 1901 Reid Hunt, at that time a special agent of the United States Department of Agriculture, studied the loco question in Montana, working mainly with *Aragallus spicatus*. He moistened the ground-up plant with 93 per cent ethyl alcohol and then percolated it until exhausted. This extract was evaporated and taken up with water so that 1 c. c. of the solution corresponded to 10 grams of the plant. This was fed to an active young rabbit weighing 490 grams, 6 c. c. being fed by the mouth and followed in about an hour by 10 c. c. more, and two hours after this by 15 c. c. This rabbit showed no symptoms during the following day. The next day it was very dull and there was marked muscular weakness, as the rabbit's legs were spread wide apart and his nose rested on the ground. Later respiration became very slow and the pupils were dilated. The paralytic symptoms increased and finally, after a convulsive movement, the

^a Kobert, R. *Lehrb. d. Intoxikationen*, p. 615. 1893.

^b O'Brine, D. *Progress Bulletin on Loco and Larkspur*. Colo. State Agric. Coll. Bul. 25, p. 13. 1893.

^c After the manuscript of this bulletin was sent to the printer it was learned through Professor Carpenter that this animal was a horse.

^d Nelson, S. B. *Feeding Wild Plants to Sheep*. Bur. Animal Industry, Bul. 22, p. 12. 1898.

^e Chesnut, V. K., and Wilcox, E. V. *Stock-Poisoning Plants of Montana*. U. S. Dept. Agric., Div. Bot., Bul. 26, p. 95. 1901.—Wilcox, E. V. *Plant Poisoning of Stock in Montana*. Bur. Animal Industry, 17th Ann. Rept., p. 111. 1900.

NOTE.—The writer wishes to acknowledge the great literary help Mr. Chesnut's card catalogue has been to him in the preparation of this paper.

animal died, thirty-six hours after the first feeding. Hunt merely states of the post-mortem examination that the stomach was well filled and that the "walls seem normal."

Hunt tried to isolate an active principle by the Dragendorff method, but failed to obtain any physiologically active shakings. He tried hypodermic injections of 80 per cent alcohol extractions of the fresh green plant, and after the injection of an extract corresponding to 60 grams of the fresh plant there was no effect produced. He tried to induce symptoms by feeding the plant itself to rabbits, but was unsuccessful, as the rabbits refused to eat the plant. He was not able to induce symptoms with the extracts of the dried plant.^a

Marshall^b studied the loco question with regard to sheep and practically denies the existence of a locoed condition due to eating the loco plants, but believes the condition due to bad feeding, parasitism, etc. He lays great stress upon the presence of worms, but fails to see that they may be merely a secondary infection superimposed upon an already morbid condition produced by eating the plants. Others have claimed that the cause is an insect living upon the loco plants. Others, again, have suggested an analogy with trypanosome disorders.

Chesnut has held the view that many of the cases of so-called locoed sheep were really due to parasites, but that there was a true locoed condition due to eating the loco weeds.

The lack of agreement in the results of the investigators has caused many to doubt any positive relation between the plant and the disease, and even as late as 1904 Payne^c practically says these diseases are due to lack of nutrition and not to the loco plant. The matter has been summed up in a recent work as follows:

Though many chemists have sought for the constituents, none have been able to locate the active properties, the trace of alkaloids, resins, volatile and fixed oils having each in turn been found destitute of it. Yet the poisonous properties are fully established by field observations. The destructiveness of these plants to stock is so great as to have probably caused upward of a million dollars loss in the aggregate, and large bounties have been offered by State governments for an effective method of avoiding such losses. It is considered very probable that the poisonous constituent is albuminoidal.^d

^a Unpublished report.

^b Marshall, H. T. Loco Weed Disease of Sheep. Johns Hopkins Hospital Bul., vol. 15, p. 182. 1904.

^c Payne, J. E. Cattle Raising on the Plains. Colo. Agric. Expt. Sta. Bul. 87, p. 16. 1904.

^d National Standard Dispensatory, p. 868. 1905.

NOTE.—The field experiments of Harding and Tudor are rather conclusive as to the relation of these plants to this disorder. Sayre, L. E., Loco Weed, Amer. Vet. Rev., vol. 11, pp. 553-554, 1887—Blankinship, J. W., Loco and Some Other Poisonous Plants in Montana, Mont. Agric. Exper. Sta. Bul. 45, pp. 83-84, 1903—Loco Disease, Therap. Gaz., vol. 12, p. 30, 1898.

NOTES ON VARIOUS MEMBERS OF THE LOCO-WEED FAMILY.

Astragalus caryocarpus is at times eaten in some of the Western States, but is claimed by some at certain stages of its growth to contain a poisonous principle. Frankforter,^a from experiments on himself, however, denies this.

Astragalus glycyphyllus has been used as a diuretic and *Astragalus exscapus* in the treatment of syphilis.^b "The seed of *A. boeticus*, planted in Germany and England, are found to be the very best substitute for coffee yet tried, and so used—roasted, parched, and mixed with coffee."^c *Astragalus nuttallianus*, according to Smith,^d is a highly nutritious forage plant in spring. *Astragalus crassicaarpus* has been prophesied by him to be a valuable addition to early spring soiling crops. *Astragalus adsurgens* (*nitidus*) and one or two other species of *Astragalus* are still used in Chinese medicine.^e The Indians of the Southwest are familiar with certain loco plants.^f The Tewans of Hano are said to eat the root of *Aragallus lamberti*, and *Astragalus mollissimus* is applied locally for headaches by some of the Arizona Indians. One of these species is used as a flavoring material by the Coahuillas and is mixed with other plants as spices.^g *Astragalus kentrophyta* had a reputation among the Navajos for the treatment of rabies.^h The use of certain loco plants—*Astragalus mollissimus*—has been advocated on theoretical grounds in the treatment of certain forms of insanity, but without favorable results.ⁱ In Peru and Chile *Astragalus garbancillo*, *A. unifolius*, and *A. ochroleucus* have been considered injurious to animals.^j *Astragalus glycyphyllus* and *A. alpinus* have been used in Europe as food for stock.^k

^a Frankforter, G. B. A Chemical Study of *Astragalus Caryocarpus*. Amer. Journ. Pharm., vol. 72, p. 320. 1900.

^b Maisch, J. M. Poisonous Species of *Astragalus*. Amer. Journ. Pharm., vol. 51, p. 240. 1879.—Fleurot. Chimiques et Pharmaceutiques sur la Racine d'Astragale sans Tiges. Journ. de Chim. Med., vol. 10, p. 656. 1834.

^c Porcher, F. P. Resources of the Southern Fields and Forests, p. 204. 1869.

^d Smith, J. G. Fodder and Forage Plants. U. S. Dept. Agric., Div. Agrost., Bul. 2 (rev. ed.), p. 12. 1900.

^e Holmes, E. M. Notes on Chinese Drugs. Pharm. Journ. and Trans., vol. 21, 3 s., p. 1149. 1891.

^f Hough, W. Environmental Interrelations in Arizona. Amer. Anthropologist, vol. 11, pp. 143, 147. 1898.

^g Barrows, D. P. Ethno-Botany of the Coahuilla Indians of Southern California, p. 67. 1900.

^h Matthews, W. Navajo Names for Plants. Amer. Nat., vol. 20, p. 772. 1886.

ⁱ Givens, A. J. Loco or Crazy Weed. Med. Century, vol. 1, p. 21. 1893.—Compare Hurd, H. M. Amer. Journ. Insanity, vol. 42, p. 178. 1885-86.

^j Rosenthal, D. A. Synopsis Plantarum Diaphoricarum, Erlangen, 1861, p. 1004. Greshoff, M. Beschrijving d. Giftige en Bedwelvende Planten bij de Viscbangst in Gebruik, p. 51. 1900.

^k Pott, E. Handb. d. tierisch. Ernährung, vol. 2, p. 113. 1907.

Details as to the use of other *Astragali* can be found in Planchon, G., *Sur les Astragales*, in *Journal de Pharmacie et de Chimie*, 5th series, vol 24, p. 473, 1891; 5th series, vol. 25, pp. 169, 233, 1892.

LABORATORY EXPERIMENTS—PHYSIOLOGICAL.

The first point in our investigations was to determine whether the plant exerted any poisonous action and to find some animal which responded regularly to it; then to ascertain if the lack of results of previous investigators was not due to insufficient doses, and later to see if by feeding smaller amounts at repeated intervals symptoms comparable to those described as occurring on the range could not be produced. The animal finally selected was the rabbit.

EXPERIMENTS ON RABBITS.

ACUTE CASES.

Experiment No. 1.—On September 8, 1905, an aqueous extract of 333 grams of fresh *Astragalus mollissimus*, made in Hugo, Colo., and shipped preserved in chloroform,^a killed a rabbit weighing 1,616 grams in one hour and thirty-five minutes, while an extract corresponding to 167 grams merely caused drowsiness and loss of appetite in a rabbit weighing 765 grams.

Experiment No. 2.—On November 29, 1905, a rabbit weighing 1,162.3 grams was fed with a concentrated aqueous extract of 500 grams of fresh *Astragalus mollissimus*, which had been shipped from Hugo, Colo., preserved in chloroform in sealed vessels. This animal died in one hour and ten minutes. The symptoms consisted in dullness, rapid respiration, and signs of pain. At autopsy the stomach and upper part of the small intestines showed hemorrhagic ecchymoses, with dilation of the dural vessels of the brain and cord, with a clot over a portion of the spinal cord.

Experiment No. 3.—On February 13, 1906, a rabbit weighing 992 grams was fed with a concentrated aqueous extract of 500 grams of the fresh *Astragalus mollissimus*, collected in September and preserved in chloroform water. Before feeding, the rabbit's ears were warm and the rabbit struggled when any attempt was made to turn him on his back. The temperature at 10.50 a. m., the time of feeding, was 103.5° F.; at 11.15 a. m., 102.5° F. At 11.30 a. m. the rabbit was breathing very rapidly and would stay on his back for some time if

^a In all cases in which the plants were preserved with chloroform sealed vessels were used for shipping. The chloroform was carefully evaporated off in vacuo before feeding the extract, the evaporation requiring several hours. The plants were collected by Dr. C. Dwight Marsh, in charge of the field investigations at Hugo, Colo.

placed so. The temperature at this time was 102.6° F. Both pupils, the one exposed to the light and the one protected, were contracted. At 12.02 p. m. convulsive movements of the legs appeared. The rabbit made one leap, the temperature rose to 103.6° F., and after a few convulsive movements of the limbs the anus relaxed and a small stool appeared, the pupils dilated, and the animal died at 12.06 p. m.

Experiment No. 4.—The feeding of the extract of 464 grams induced a fall in temperature of 2.4° F. in three hours, and the rabbit died several hours later (at night).

Experiment No. 5.—March 2, 1906, a rabbit weighing 928 grams was fed with a concentrated extract of 500 grams of the fresh seeds and pods of *Astragalus mollissimus*, made in September, 1905, and preserved with chloroform water. This animal died in one hour and seven minutes. The animal showed the usual post-mortem conditions.

It was thus found that the aqueous extract of 500 grams of the fresh *Astragalus mollissimus* would cause death in about one hour in rabbits weighing about 2 pounds (907 grams), these rabbits showing constant clinical symptoms—urination, paralysis, more or less convulsive muscular twitchings, often terminating in general convulsions, drowsiness, and stupor, with more or less anesthesia. The pupils at the time of death were often unequal. At first there was usually a slight rise in temperature, but this was soon succeeded by a fall. Often there were soft stools. The post-mortem lesions in these cases were marked congestion, with hemorrhages in the stomach walls and a secretion of thick mucus. The portions of the stomach walls most affected were the dependent portions near the cardiac end. The intestines showed dilatation of the blood vessels. The mesenteric vessels and also the vessels in the cerebral portions of the dura were markedly dilated; in some cases there were clots, especially at the posterior portion of the brain, between the cerebrum and the cerebellum. At times there were clots over the dorsal portion of the cord. On cutting into the brain the brain substance itself did not appear to be congested. The cord seemed about normal, but the vessels of its membranes were well marked. The other organs showed nothing characteristic macroscopically. These experiments were repeated many times and found to be constant.

These acute symptoms were likewise produced by an extract of 500 grams of the fresh *Aragallus lamberti* from Arizona preserved in chloroform water (rabbit weighing 1,998 grams). An aqueous extract of 150 grams of the dried *Astragalus mollissimus*^a from Imperial, Nebr. (1906), caused death in one hour and fifty-eight minutes

^a All extracts from dried material were made at Washington.

in a rabbit weighing 1,530 grams, and an extract of 100 grams killed in one hour and twenty-two minutes a rabbit weighing 736 grams.

An aqueous extract of 100 grams of the dried *Astragalus bigelowii* induced death in one hour and thirty-eight minutes, the rabbit weighing 1,502 grams.

An aqueous extract of 150 grams of *Astragalus nitidus* collected at Woodland Park, Colo., in 1906 induced death in three hours and five minutes, the rabbit weighing 1,672 grams.

An aqueous extract of 200 grams of the dried *Astragalus bisulcatus* caused death after several hours (at night), the rabbit weighing 2,423 grams.

In certain cases this production of acute symptoms was not entirely a question of salt action, as was shown by certain other experiments. In other cases salt action seems to be the important factor, so that the production of these acute symptoms can not always be considered characteristic.

CHRONIC CASES.

Experiment No. 6.—February 19, 1906, a large gray rabbit weighing 2,055.3 grams was fed with 60 c. c. of fluid representing the concentrated aqueous extract of 250 grams of the fresh *Astragalus mollissimus*, collected September 18, 1905, and preserved in chloroform. This rabbit was very hard to hold. The ears rested on the body. The temperature at the time of feeding, 1.30 p. m., was 102.3° F. At 2.57 p. m. the animal looked dull but resisted handling. At 3.30 p. m. it urinated. At 4.15 p. m. the temperature was 98.5° F., the pupils were about the same size as before feeding, and the animal became much duller. The next day at 12.50 p. m. the temperature was 102.4° F., and at this time the animal could be handled with greater ease. The animal ate in the morning. The same amount of extract was again fed at 1.24 p. m. At 1.35 p. m. the animal was much duller and could be turned on his back with ease. If disturbed he ran against the wall as if utterly unconscious of the obstruction. The animal had soft, liquid, brown stools and tried to lie down as much as possible. If turned on its back with the feet up it would stay so almost indefinitely. Temperature, 103.8° F.; respiration very rapid. At 2.40 p. m. the temperature was 99.8° F., and the animal died a few minutes later. After death the pupils were much contracted. The vessels of the dura covering the brain were much dilated, but the vessels inside the brain were not dilated. The stomach walls were congested and marked with numerous petechiæ and covered with mucus.

Experiment No. 7.—On February 19, 1906, a white and brown rabbit whose temperature was 103.2° F. was fed 30 c. c. of aqueous fluid representing the concentrated extract of 125 grams of the fresh

Astragalus mollissimus, collected September, 1905, and preserved with chloroform. The rabbit weighed 1,502.5 grams. This extract was fed at 1.45 p. m., and at 4.15 p. m. the temperature was 102.6° F., but there were no marked symptoms. The following day at 2.04 p. m. the temperature registered 102.5° F. The same amount of extract was given at 2.09 p. m. The temperature at 4 p. m. was 99.8° F., the animal was dull, and the pupils were perhaps a little smaller. The animal could not be turned over without resistance. The following day, February 21, at 1.30 p. m. the temperature was 102.6° F., and at 1.45 the same amount of extract was given. At 1.54 p. m. the animal was much duller and the breathing was very rapid. At 4.10 p. m. the temperature was 101.3° F. The animal had been dull ever since the feeding was begun. It nibbled food shortly before the last feeding. On February 23 the same amount of extract was given at 2.16 p. m., temperature 99° F. The breathing was very rapid, the ears shaking, and there was a sleepy, dull look about the animal. At 3.30 p. m. the animal was dull, but would still walk about if disturbed. At this time the animal weighed 1,445.8 grams. At 4.30 p. m. the temperature was 102° F. and the pupils were about normal size. There was a marked sleepy look about the animal, which sat quietly in its cage.

February 24, at 1 p. m., the animal was very dull and could with ease be turned on its back with its feet in the air. It would sit in its cage perfectly quiet. The weight at this time was 1,417.5 grams, the temperature 96.6° F. On February 26 the animal weighed 1,360.8 grams. It was dull and refused to eat. The abdomen felt very distended and tympanitic. February 27 the weight was still 1,360.8 grams, and the animal sat in its cage as if asleep, with eyes half closed. There was no diarrhea and the abdomen was very distended. At 11.15 a. m. there was a general convulsion and the animal fell over. At 12 m. the abdomen seemed even more swollen, the animal was hardly able to walk, and it fell over, uttering a cry. Pupils were about normal—perhaps a little smaller. The animal died at 12.10 p. m.

The post-mortem, made immediately after death, showed the abdomen markedly tympanitic, and the large intestines could be outlined through the abdominal walls with ease. The large intestines were of a chocolate color, intensely congested, and marked with hemorrhages. On opening the abdomen there was a decided putrefactive odor, and about an ounce of bloody fluid was found in the peritoneal cavity, together with fibrin flakes. The stomach was pale, the first three inches of the small intestine up to where it turned sharply were pale, and below this the intestines were injected and full of gas and of a dark red color. The kidneys were 3½ centimeters long and were pale,

capsules easily peeled off; cortex pale. Liver pale and infected with some coccidæ. The gall bladder was one-quarter inch wide and one inch long. Spleen a trifle pale; lungs pale, nothing abnormal; heart relaxed. On opening the stomach gas and fluid, with some food, exuded. The walls were pale, but pink in some places. There was no marked congestion or hemorrhage or perforation. The mesenteric vessels were dilated. The upper portion of the intestines contained a little mucus-like fluid, but lower down became bloody, and still lower contained pus-like fluid. The walls were hemorrhagic. The large intestine contained a soft, fecal-like fluid, very foul. Its walls were much congested and full of hemorrhagic points. The cortex of the suprarenal bodies was sharply defined, the medullæ brownish. Brain pale, some dural vessels well marked, no clots or hemorrhages. Base of brain pale. No congestion seen on cutting into the brain. Spinal cord showed no hemorrhages or lymph effusions.

Experiment No. 8.—On February 18, 1906, at 2 p. m., a rabbit whose temperature was 102.2° F. was fed with the aqueous extract of 125 grams of fresh *Astragalus mollissimus*, collected in September, 1905, and preserved in chloroform, 30 c. c. of the fluid being used. At 4.25 p. m. the temperature was 102.4° F. No symptoms were noted. This rabbit weighed 1,644.3 grams. On February 20 at 2.09 p. m. the temperature was 102.2° F. and the rabbit showed no symptoms. The same dose was repeated at 2.15 p. m. At 4 p. m. the temperature was 100.3° F. The rabbit was dull but could not be turned over without a struggle. February 21 at 1.30 p. m. the temperature was 101.4° F. The same amount of extract was fed at 1.45 p. m. At this time the animal was dull and breathed more rapidly. At 4.10 p. m. the temperature was 97.3° F. Next day the same amount of extract was again given at 2 p. m. At 2.16 p. m. the breathing became rapid and the animal duller. The ears were directed forward. At 4.15 p. m. the temperature was 101.6° F.; weight 1,757.7 grams; animal slightly dull. February 24, temperature 102° F., weight 1,786 grams. March 5, weight 1,729.3 grams. The animal was fed at 3.20 p. m. with a concentrated extract of 125 grams of *Astragalus mollissimus*, collected in September. Temperature at time of feeding 100.4° F.; 3.40 p. m., no symptoms; 4 p. m., temperature 102° F. March 7, weight 1,644.3 grams; March 8, weight 1,672.6 grams; March 10, weight 1,701 grams; March 12, weight 1,658.4 grams; March 14, weight 1,701 grams.

In this case, where the same dose was given in a period of five days, very little effect on the rabbit was noted.

Experiment No. 9.—On March 1, 1906, a black rabbit weighing 2,664.8 grams was fed with a concentrated aqueous extract of 250 grams of fresh *Astragalus mollissimus*, collected in the fall of 1905.

On March 5 the weight was 2,296.3 grams. The animal was then given the same amount of extract. During the afternoon it passed mucus and thick pieces of feces and was dull; respiration very rapid. March 6, weight 2,282 grams; March 7, 3 p. m., animal very dull and would not eat; sat hunched up, but resisted being disturbed; weight 2,310.5 grams. March 8, weight 2,183 grams; March 9, weight 2,069.5 grams. Pupils dilated; finger could be run almost against the eye, provided the lashes were not touched, without the animal winking or paying any attention. Rabbit ate very little and had not urinated since the preceding day. Left ear had fallen to the side as if the animal were unable to support it. Weight, 1,912.8 grams. From March 9 to March 11, 67 c. c. of cloudy urine were voided. This did not clear with acetic acid. Left eye tearing. March 10, head held to right side. March 12, weight 1,786 grams. Left pupil smaller than right, neither responding to light. Rabbit very weak. March 14, weight 1,729.3 grams. Would not eat. March 16, weight 1,644.3 grams. Right pupil larger than left, neither responding to light. Diarrhea present. Breathing noisy. In sitting down she raised herself on her forelegs, evidently to take the pressure off her abdomen, which was distended. If disturbed, she would butt against the side of the cage, apparently oblivious of its presence. Knee jerks were very active, almost a clonus. Reflex from tendo Achillis active. March 17, forelegs spread out, head falling to left side. The temperature had fallen below 94° F. and would not register on the ordinary clinical thermometer. The ears twitched, the head was thrown back, the abdomen was distended, and the rabbit gritted its teeth. Died. Weight, 1,559.2 grams.

Brain and spinal cord pale. Dural vessels plainly seen but not marked. Intestinal vessels congested. Stomach pale; nothing apparent macroscopically save a small pin-point ulcer.^a Heart relaxed. Post-mortem examination otherwise negative macroscopically.

Experiment No. 10.—A mouse-colored rabbit weighing 1,927.8 grams was fed February 18, 1906, at 2.26 p. m., with a concentrated aqueous extract of 250 grams of fresh *Astragalus mollissimus* collected in September, 1905, and preserved in chloroform water. The temperature of this rabbit was 102.6° F. The fluid given was 40 c. c. At 2.45 p. m. the rabbit urinated and at 2.57 p. m. was dull and the respiration became rapid. The animal then aborted and had three young, two of which showed some movement after birth, but were apparently premature.

^a Compare Plönus, W., Beziehungen d. Geschwürs u. d. Erosionen d. Magens z. d. funktionell. Störungen u. Krankh. d. Darnes, Arch. f. Verdauungsk., vol. 13, pp. 180, 270, 1907, and Tixier, L., Anémies Exper. Conséc. aux Ulcér. du Pyloré, Comp. Rend. Hebd. Soc. de Biol., vol. 62, p. 1041, 1907.

On February 23 the temperature of this rabbit was 102.9° F. at 1.40 p. m. She was then fed with the same amount of the extract as before. At 2.16 p. m. she lay down and became much duller; left ear fallen to side. At 3.30 p. m. the rabbit was unable to stand. The pupil of the eye exposed to the light was dilated. The animal died without a struggle. The stomach contained much bloody mucus. In the dependent portion of the stomach near the cardiac end were marked petechiæ in the walls, with bright-red blood in the stomach itself. The heart was relaxed. The intestines showed nothing abnormal. The dural vessels of the brain were dilated; there was a clot on the dura over the fourth ventricle. Spinal cord and kidneys normal, the capsules not adhering. Weight, 1,786 grams at death.

Experiment No. 11.—On March 1, 1906, a rabbit weighing 2,126.2 grams was fed with a concentrated aqueous extract of 250 grams of the fresh *Aragallus lamberti* preserved in chloroform water. On March 5 this dose was repeated, 37.5 c. c. of the fluid being used. March 6 the rabbit weighed 1,956 grams; March 7, 1,913.6 grams; March 8, 1,828.5 grams; March 9, 1,701 grams; March 12, 1,672.6 grams; March 14, 1,644.3 grams.

Experiment No. 12.—January 19, 1906, a concentrated aqueous extract of 500 grams of the fresh *Aragallus lamberti* preserved with chloroform water was fed to a rabbit weighing 785 grams. The temperature at 12.10 p. m., the time of feeding, was 101.6° F. The temperature 1 hour and 43 minutes later was 94.6° F., and the animal died shortly after, showing the same condition as occurred after feeding extracts of *Astragalus mollissimus*.

PREGNANT ANIMALS.

Experiment No. 13.—A large, gray, pregnant rabbit weighing 2,891.6 grams was fed on February 22, 1906, with 42 c. c. of fluid, corresponding to the aqueous extract of 250 grams of *Astragalus mollissimus* collected in September and October, 1905, and preserved with chloroform. At 4 p. m. the animal was dull, but still resisted efforts to handle. On February 24 this animal weighed 2,778.2 grams, and on February 26 it bore a litter of seven young rabbits. One or two of these showed movements of the limbs, but were apparently immature. This rabbit on March 10 weighed 2,537.3 grams; March 12, 2,438 grams; March 14, 2,508.9 grams; March 22, 2,494.7 grams.

Experiment No. 14.—On March 1, 1906, a black rabbit weighing 2,721.6 grams was fed at 12.15 p. m. with a concentrated aqueous extract of 250 grams of the fresh *Astragalus mollissimus* collected in September, 1905. On March 2 it weighed 2,438 grams; at 2.58 p. m. it still resisted efforts to turn it on its back; at 3.15 p. m. it could be turned on its back with ease. March 6 the weight was 2,338.8 grams;

March 7 the animal was very dull, would not eat, pupils dilated, hind legs paralyzed; died during the night; weight, 2,267.9 grams.

The stomach walls were pale save at the dependent portion near the cardiac end, where there was a hemorrhagic, ulcerated area about $1\frac{1}{2}$ by $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The intestines were full of gas, but not hemorrhagic. The uterus contained eight immature fœti. The uterine walls were hemorrhagic. The kidneys weighed $9\frac{1}{2}$ grams; their medullæ were dark and the straight tubules well defined. The cerebral dural vessels were congested and the spinal dural vessels were well defined. The bladder was found contracted. The blood gave no bands for methæmoglobin, but showed merely those of oxyhæmoglobin on spectroscopic examination.

Experiment No. 15.—Control experiments made by feeding water were negative, except when a large quantity (150 c. c.) of water was given to a rabbit weighing 1,020.5 grams. The animal died in 12 hours with marked pallor of the tissues (hydræmia), a pathological condition quite different from that obtained by feeding extracts of the loco plants, and no such results were secured with the amount of water used in our feeding experiments. 50 to 70 c. c.

SUBCUTANEOUS INJECTIONS.

Experiment No. 16.—On February 28, 1906, a white rabbit weighing 581.2 grams was injected subcutaneously at 10.35 a. m. with a concentrated aqueous extract of 83 grams of fresh *Astragalus mollissimus* collected in September, 1905, and preserved with chloroform. The temperature before injection was 102.1° F. At 1.40 p. m. the animal was dull; at 3.12 p. m. the temperature registered 99.8° F. The animal died during the night. The post-mortem examination was negative. Stomach pale; heart relaxed save left ventricle, which seemed contracted; dural vessels of the brain dilated; kidneys perhaps normal. No microscopical examination.

Experiment No. 17.—February 28, 1906, at 10.25 a. m., a guinea pig weighing 496 grams was injected subcutaneously with a concentrated aqueous extract of 83 grams of the fresh *Astragalus mollissimus* preserved in chloroform water. At 1.40 p. m. there was muscular twitching. The animal was dull and could be easily turned on his back. The hind legs began to show weakness. At 1.50 p. m. the hind legs were almost completely paralyzed and the animal could be easily turned on his back. Muscles of the limbs twitched and semen was expelled. Animal died at 2.15 p. m.

Post-mortem showed dural vessels of cord and brain full of blood. Stomach pinker than normal; mesenteric vessels dilated. Heart almost empty of blood. Kidneys congested.

SUMMARY OF FEEDING EXPERIMENTS ON RABBITS.

These experiments indicate that an acute form of poisoning may be induced by feeding concentrated aqueous extracts of *Astragalus mollissimus* and *Aragallus lamberti* from Hugo, Colo., and Imperial, Nebr., to rabbits, and that if the extract is given in smaller and repeated doses a more prolonged or chronic condition may follow.

The rabbits showing the chronic effects of these plants exhibit symptoms which have a marked parallelism with those reported as occurring in larger herbivora (horses and cattle) on the range when locoed; that is, the loss of appetite (Experiment No. 9), the emaciation and loss in weight (Experiment No. 9), the dullness and stupor, with more or less anesthesia (Experiment No. 7), the disturbance in the visual function (Experiment No. 9), and the mental symptoms (Experiment No. 6). The occasional abortion compares with what has been observed in larger animals. The dried *Astragalus mollissimus* and *Aragallus lamberti* still retained their poisonous properties, as we were able to kill with aqueous extracts of the dried plants made in the laboratory under the proper conditions.

EXPERIMENTS ON SHEEP.

Experiment No. 1.—On May 31, 1906, a sheep weighing 32.2 kilos was fed with a concentrated aqueous extract of 1,000 grams of the fresh *Astragalus mollissimus* preserved in chloroform water. The temperature at 11 o'clock, the time of feeding, was 103.4° F. At 11.45 a. m. this dose was repeated. At 12 o'clock the temperature was 104.1° F. At 12.45 the animal urinated. At 1.10 p. m. a similar extract of 2,000 grams was fed. The total liquid used was 1,500 c. c. On June 1 no symptoms were noted. On June 5 an extract of 3,000 grams of fresh *Aragallus lamberti* and 3,000 grams of *Astragalus mollissimus* was fed. After feeding this the animal could be easily turned over on its back and its ear pricked with impunity. The animal at this time weighed 30.8 kilos. On June 6, at 11 a. m., the temperature was 104° F. The sheep had numerous soft stools, and was very dull, and would not eat. On June 7 the temperature was 103.7° F. and the sheep still refused to eat. On the 8th the temperature was 103.2° F. at 10.40 a. m., and the stools were still numerous and soft.

There were then fed 640 c. c., representing the aqueous extract of 4,000 grams of the fresh *Aragallus lamberti*. The animal could be easily turned on its back. It weighed at this time 28.57 kilos. On June 9, at 10.47 a. m., the temperature was 103.4° F. The sheep still did not eat, but had no diarrhea. It now weighed 27.9 kilos, and the temperature was 103° F. at 10.45 a. m.

On June 13 the animal began to eat, and 1,700 c. c. of fluid, representing 5,500 grams of the fresh *Aragallus lamberti*, were fed. The temperature at 12.30 p. m. was 103° F. On June 14 the temperature was 103.4° F., the animal weighed 28.3 kilos, and refused food. On June 16 the weight was 28.3 kilos; the temperature at 2 p. m. was 103.5° F. There was no diarrhea.

On June 19 the aqueous extract of 1,000 grams of the dried *Astragalus mollissimus* was fed with 420 c. c. of water. The temperature was 102.6° F. On June 20 the temperature was 102.9° F. at 10.45 a. m.

On June 21 500 c. c., representing the aqueous extract of 1,000 grams of the dried *Astragalus mollissimus*, were again fed. The animal now weighed 26.9 kilos. On June 26 the animal weighed 26 kilos, and its gait was very uncertain. The temperature was 104.2° F. It was fed 300 c. c. of fluid, representing the extract of 400 grams of the dried *Astragalus mollissimus*. On June 29 the animal weighed 26.8 kilos and the temperature was 102.8° F. It was fed the extract of 1,000 grams of dried *Astragalus mollissimus* in 500 c. c. of water. On June 30, at 10.45 a. m., the temperature was 104.2° F. The animal was very dull and died at night.

At autopsy the intestines and stomach merely appeared pale. There were no worms, and the lungs and other organs appeared normal.

Experiment No. 2.—A lamb weighing 15.4 kilos was fed on July 6, at 1.10 p. m., with 640 c. c. of fluid, representing the extract of 2,000 grams of *Astragalus mollissimus*. At 1.17 p. m. the animal could be turned on its back, and it regained its feet with difficulty. At 1.24 p. m. it urinated and had a stool. The lamb died during the night.

The autopsy the following morning showed the heart filled with clots; lungs normal save for hypostatic congestion. The cerebral and dural vessels were dilated. About 1½ teaspoonfuls of bloody serum were found at the base of the brain. There was none in the lateral ventricles, and no clots. The kidneys exhibited no marked congestion. There was no fluid found in the peritoneal or the pleural or pericardial cavities. The first stomach, however, contained small hemorrhagic spots, and the second was black. There were small hemorrhages in the intestines.

Experiment No. 3.—July 13, 1906, a sheep weighing 19.5 kilos was fed with 640 c. c. of fluid, representing the extract of 2,000 grams of *Aragallus lamberti*. The temperature at the time of feeding, 1.10 p. m., was 105.3° F. At 1.49 p. m. the sheep could be easily turned on its back. At 2.23 p. m. the temperature was 103.6° F. At 3.42 p. m. the temperature was 103.5° F. At 4.20 p. m. the respiration was fairly rapid. On July 14, at 11.15 a. m., the tempera-

ture was 103.6° F. The sheep would run about but could easily be turned over. It had not eaten, but there was diarrhea present. July 15, at 3.30 p. m., the temperature was 104° F. The animal had eaten. On July 17 the temperature was 104° F. and the animal weighed 18.8 kilos. On the 27th it weighed 17.2 kilos; on August 29, 20.8 kilos.

Experiment No. 4.—A lamb weighing 19 kilos was fed August 21, 1906, with 740 c. c., representing the aqueous extract of 2,500 grams of the fresh *Astragalus mollissimus*, shipped to Washington in September, 1905. This animal ate at night, but the following day was dull. When seen on August 27 there was diarrhea present and the animal was still dull. On the 28th the animal died, weighing 16.7 kilos. There was no autopsy on account of decomposition.

Experiment No. 5.—A lamb weighing 15.6 kilos was fed on September 4, 1906, with an aqueous extract representing 3,500 grams of the dried *Aragallus lamberti*, 1,000 c. c. of water being used. The temperature at the time of feeding was 104.3° F. At 2.48 p. m. the animal on rising to its feet developed a slight tremor of the fore legs and showed marked disinclination to stand on its feet. The temperature was 104° F. The animal died at 4.25 p. m. The post-mortem was negative, save for some reddening of the second stomach.^a

These feeding experiments in sheep can not be considered quantitative, because, as is shown later, aqueous extracts of dried plants are often inactive, yet poisonous principles may be obtained from the plants by treatment with digestive fluids.

Extracts of dried loco plants vary much in their toxicity; with some the writer was unable to kill rabbits, even when an extract of 300 grams of the dried plant was used. It is interesting to note that when the field station was established at Hugo, Colo., in 1905, almost all the aqueous extracts of dried specimens sent to Washington would produce the acute symptoms of poisoning in rabbits, but during the third season of its existence many of the samples sent from the same area were much less active, if not inactive.

LABORATORY EXPERIMENTS—CHEMICAL.

The fact that the aqueous extract of 500 grams of the fresh *Astragalus mollissimus*, or of 200 grams (in some cases 100 grams) of the dried plant, when fed by mouth, would regularly kill a rabbit weighing about 907 grams, with certain definite clinical symptoms and pathological lesions, was at first arbitrarily selected as our test

^a There was a slight odor of chloroform noticed on opening the stomach, so that perhaps the imperfect removal of the chloroform due to a hurried evaporation of the extract should be taken into consideration in this case.

to aid in the isolation of the active principle. Later the production of chronic symptoms by the aqueous extract or digestion of 200 grams of these dried plants given in doses of 100 grams each on two successive days was considered essential. Carnivora, such as dogs and cats, vomit so easily as to render them unsuitable for these investigations. The aqueous extract was distilled with and without steam, also after acidifying with sulphuric acid, and likewise after the addition of magnesium oxid, but in all cases the distillate was inactive.

The concentrated aqueous extract was shaken by the Dragendorff method with petroleum ether, benzol, chloroform, ether, and amyl alcohol, both in alkaline and acid condition, but the shakings yielded no physiologically active body. Shakings by the Otto-Stas method also proved inactive. Lead acetate, lead subacetate, silver nitrate, mercuric chlorid, alcohol, phosphotungstic acid, trichloroacetic acid, ammonium hydrate, sodium carbonate, sodium hydrate, Mayer's solution, uranyl acetate, silver oxid, and barium carbonate also failed to remove the active constituent. They gave heavy precipitates in all cases, but these proved inactive. Hydrocyanic acid was sought for with negative results. The pathological lesions in the very acute cases suggested in some respects oxalic acid, a saponin, a metal, or perhaps a toxalbumin as the active principle, but none of the precipitants for saponins, such as lead and copper, or the magnesium oxid method yielded a body which was active. Proteids were excluded by the fact that the various proteid precipitants—alcohol, trichloroacetic acid, lead subacetate, mercuric sulphate or chlorid, and salting out with ammonium sulphate and sodium chlorid (complete saturation and half saturation)—failed to give an active precipitate. Glucosidal or alkaloidal bodies were also excluded. On dialysing for twenty-four hours, some of the active principle went into the dialysate and some remained in the dialyser. Ether yielded a precipitate from alcoholic solution which failed to kill. The possibility of the activity of the plants being due to its normal acidity was excluded by neutralizing the extract with sodium hydrate and precipitating the salts with alcohol. The filtrate proved active after removing the alcohol.

The negative results in looking for active alkaloidal, or glucosidal, or proteid bodies suggested that perhaps the action was due to some inorganic constituent. The writer then boiled the extract three minutes and as the filtrate was still found active and the proteid precipitate inactive became convinced of the inorganic nature of the active constituents, and finally incinerated the plant. The acid extract from this was also active, but death was delayed several hours. This was believed to be due to the insoluble form into which

the compound was converted.^a In fact, the question of solubility and the avoidance of an acid reaction, which of itself may kill, are the main points to keep in mind.

These experiments indicated that the injurious action toward rabbits of the *Astragalus mollissimus* and *Aragallus lamberti* collected at Hugo, Colo., was due to one or more inorganic constituents,^b but it does not follow that all loco plants have the same poisonous principle nor that the same species occurring on all soils has the same poisonous action.^c

Of *Astragalus mollissimus* from Imperial, Nebr., collected in 1906, 200 grams were ashed in a platinum bowl and extracted with water. This aqueous extract when neutralized produced no marked symptoms in a rabbit and the weight of the animal remained about the same.

The ash undissolved after this extraction was then treated with acetic acid and water overnight, and after carefully evaporating off the acetic acid on the bath (tested by litmus paper) the residue was fed, partly in solution and partly suspended in water, to a rabbit weighing 1,800.2 grams. Next day the rabbit weighed 1,771.8 grams, showed paralysis of the limbs, and died during the morning. The stomach was intensely reddened and contracted.

An extract of a similar ash was made by boiling the same amount with a large quantity of 94 per cent alcohol. This was evaporated in vacuo and taken in water and fed to a rabbit weighing 1,459.9 grams. On the sixth day the animal died, having lost 70.9 grams in weight. The stomach showed reddening but no ulcers.

An acetic acid aqueous extract, made from the ash after the alcoholic extraction, proved inactive, showing that the alcohol had re-

^a Work is now being done by the writer on the inorganic constituents of various plants.

^b Scattered throughout the veterinary literature one finds cases of poisoning in animals with symptoms similar to those occurring in locoed animals which are attributed to eating plants grown on a peculiar soil, as in Oserow, Ueber Krankh. d. Pferde, welche Aehnlichkeit mit der Cerebro-spinal meningitis haben, aber durch Vergiftungen mit Gräsern von Salzgründen (Salzmooren) verursacht werden, Journ. f. Allgem. Veterinär-Medicin, St. Petersburg, p. 486, 1906. Abstract in Jahresber. über d. Leistungen auf dem Gebiete d. Veterinär-Medicin, vol. 26, p. 226, 1906.—Compare also Étude sur Quelques Plantes Vénéneuses des Régions Calcaires, Bul. Soc. Cent. de Méd. Vét., vol. 48, p. 378, 1894.

^c After completing this work the writer found that Sayre had said that he "had the suggestion that the harm coming from this plant is due to the inorganic constituents; this clue has been followed up, but like the others has brought us no nearer to the solution of the problem." Kans. Acad. Sci. Trans., vol. 18, p. 144. 1903.

moved the active bodies. A 70 per cent alcohol extract of another ashed lot proved active, killing the rabbit overnight.

Of *Astragalus mollissimus* from Imperial, Nebr., 200 grams were ashed in a platinum bowl and the ash treated with acetic acid water. After freeing from acid, one half of the solution and emulsion was fed one day and the second half fed the following day. The rabbit at the time of feeding weighed 1,275.7 grams. Fourteen days later the animal died, weighing 1,105.6 grams. No autopsy.

A similar extract of the ash from between 100 and 150 grams of the same dried plant produced death in a rabbit weighing 1,190 grams in two hours and fifty-eight minutes.

The acetic acid extract of the ash of 125 grams of a mixture of the dried *Astragalus mollissimus* and *Aragallus lamberti* received from Hugo, Colo., June, 1907, after freeing from acid, was fed to a rabbit weighing 1,304 grams on July 29. On July 30 it weighed 1,332.4 grams. August 1 it weighed 1,219 grams, and it died the same day. The stomach was reddened and showed ulcers.

A similar extract from 250 grams of the same dried plants on boiling gave a heavy precipitate, but this precipitate was inactive, while the filtrate killed a rabbit in four hours.

Of dry *Aragallus lamberti* collected in September, 1906, 200 grams were extracted with water and fed to a rabbit weighing 1,516.7 grams. Two days later the animal weighed 1,360 grams and died the same day.

The ash from 200 grams of the same dried plant was extracted with acetic acid, and after evaporating off the acid this was fed to a rabbit weighing 2,045.3 grams. Seven days later the animal weighed 1,729.3 grams, having lost 316 grams in weight.

The ash from 250 grams of the same species of plant, after similar treatment with acetic acid, induced death in a rabbit weighing 2,069 grams in 2 hours and 20 minutes. The stomach was inflamed.

EFFECT OF THE AQUEOUS EXTRACT OF ASHED LOCO PLANTS.

The filtrate from the ash from 200 grams of dried *Astragalus mollissimus*, from Imperial, Nebr., after similar treatment with acetic acid water and freed from free acid, killed a rabbit in several hours.

Hydrochloric acid also rendered the toxic agent of the ash soluble in water, but proved unsuitable for our work, as it was found impossible to obtain neutral residues by mere evaporation on the bath. At first one of the heavy metals or members of the H_2S group^a was suspected, but on passing H_2S into the slightly acid extract of the ash no

^a Swain, R. E., and Harkins, W. D. Arsenic in Vegetation Exposed to Smelter Smoke. Journ. Amer. Chem. Soc., vol. 30, p. 915. 1908.—Harkins, W. D., and Swain, R. E. The Chronic Arsenical Poisoning of Herbivorous Animals. Journ. Amer. Chem. Soc., vol. 30, p. 928, 1908.

active precipitate resulted, but the filtrate remained active.^a A special Marsh test was, however, made for arsenic and antimony with negative results. A test for tungsten with zinc and hydrochloric acid proved negative.

Members of the ammonium sulphid group were then suspected, but while ammonium hydrate alone gave a heavy white precipitate, this precipitate, as also the black one with ammonium sulphid, proved inactive save when not thoroughly freed from acid (used for solution). The action of this ammonium sulphid precipitate on rabbits was watched for sixteen days, but without result. Nevertheless, the writer still suspected some of the rare earths.^b

Sestini^c had found that if certain plants were nourished with a solution of a beryllium salt, in the ash of these plants could be shown the presence of beryllium.

Two grams of beryllium chlorid were fed in aqueous solution to a rabbit weighing 1,800.2 grams. In four days this animal lost 241 grams and died. The stomach showed the same general pallor seen in chronic locoed rabbits, but no ulcers. The tests for beryllium by Sestini's method, however, failed to show beryllium in the active loco plants examined.

Thorium chlorid, cerium chlorid, and lanthanum chlorid in 2-gram doses and zirconium chlorid in 3-gram doses produced no chronic symptoms in rabbits or, in fact, any disturbance. Titanium chlorid, 2.5 grams, evaporated in the air and then fed in an emulsion to a rabbit, also proved inactive, but this inactivity may have been due to its insolubility.

Thallium nitrate c. p., in aqueous solution, in 2-gram doses, killed a rabbit weighing 2,154.6 grams in two hours and fifteen minutes. The stomach in this case, while pink, was not hemorrhagic.

Zirconium chlorid has an astringent taste, and if fed repeatedly will cause the metallic astringent action. On boiling an acetic acid solution of the ash with sodium acetate a precipitate formed.^d

The presence of zirconium was thus suspected and Dr. E. C. Sullivan, of the United States Geological Survey, estimated it to be

^a A similar extract was sent to the Bureau of Chemistry, and that Bureau also reported an absence of the elements of the H₂S group.

^b Bachem, C. *Pharmakologisches über einige Edelerden*. *Arch. Internat. de Pharmacodyn.*, vol. 17, p. 363. 1907.

^c Sestini, F. *Esper. di Vegetaz. del Frumento con Sostituz. della Glucina alla Magnesla*. *Staz. Sper. Agrar. Ital.*, vol. 20, p. 256. 1891.—*Di alcuni Elementi Chimici Rari a Trovarsi nei Vegetabili*. *Staz. Sper. Agrar. Ital.*, vol. 15, p. 290. 1888.

NOTE.—The ammonium sulphid precipitate was very small if the phosphates were first removed with tin and nitric acid.

^d Böhm, C. R. *Darstellung d. seltenen Erden*, vol. 1, p. 40. 1905.

present in the ash of a sample of *Aragallus lamberti* in about 0.01 per cent zirconium oxid, with also 0.1 per cent titanium dioxid.^a

Zirconium chlorid, 3 grams, was fed in aqueous solution to a rabbit weighing 850.5 grams. This rabbit lost 96 grams in seven days, and was then fed 3 grams more of the same solution and the following day 2 grams more. It died eight days later, weighing 656 grams. The stomach and intestines were contracted, but showed no ulcers. However, 4 grams killed a rabbit in two hours and thirty-two minutes.

The filtrate, after treating an active solution of the ash with hydrogen peroxid, proved active, thus showing that zirconium was not entirely responsible for the poisonous action.

Yttrium, while not found in the plant, was administered as yttrium chlorid to a rabbit weighing 1,530 grams in 2-gram doses in solution. This animal gained 113.4 grams in five days.

Didymium chlorid c. p., in 3-gram doses, was fed to a rabbit weighing 1,020 grams. This rabbit lost 70 grams in four days.

The administration of manganese acetate^b in 2-gram doses was followed by a gain in weight of a rabbit of 42.5 grams, while a dose of 3 grams killed a rabbit weighing 1,077 grams in two hours and thirty minutes. Wohlwill^c has emphasized the fact that the members of the iron group owe their comparative harmlessness to not being absorbed by the gastro-intestinal tract.

No zinc was found in the plant.^d

It is well recognized that potassium salts given hypodermically are decidedly toxic and that ammonium salts given per os will kill, so that the writer considered the possibility of other members of the group being responsible for the injurious action. The fact that the alkaline distillate of the plant proved inactive eliminated the ammonium salts.

Cæsium chlorid c. p., 2 grams, was fed in aqueous solution to a rabbit weighing 1,077.2 grams. In six days this animal lost 255 grams in weight, when it died.^e

^a Walt, C. E. Occurrence of Titanium. Journ. Amer. Chem. Soc., vol. 18, p. 402. 1896.

NOTE.—There seem to be no records of any study of the pharmacological action of titanium.

^b Compare Jaksch, R. v. Ueber Mangantoxikosen und Manganophobie. Münch. Med. Woch., p. 960. 1907.

^c Wohlwill, F. Ueber d. Wirkung d. Metalle d. Nickelgruppe. Arch. f. Exper. Path., vol. 56, p. 409. 1907.

^d Laband, L. Zur Verbreitung des Zinkes im Pflanzenreiche. Zeits. f. Untersuch. d. Nahrungs- u. Genussmittel, vol. 4, p. 489. 1901.

^e Cæsium occurs in various plants and the possibility of poisoning by this element must be considered. It is hoped that the writer may be able to undertake a more thorough pharmacological study of this element.

A second rabbit, weighing 1,020.5 grams, was fed with 2 grams of the same solution and lost 368 grams in twenty-one days. The spectroscopic test, however, failed to show cæsium in the ashed plant. Rubidium chlorid c. p., in 2-gram doses, proved inactive. The platinum chlorid precipitate from the extract of the plant proved inactive.

The fact that the filtrate after precipitation of the phosphates by tin and nitric acid and H_2S was active excluded the phosphoric acid radical, and the filtrate after treatment with BaCO_3 and AgO being active excluded the H_2SO_4 and HCl radicals as the toxic body. Fluorine was proved to be absent.

A radio-active substance was suspected, but Dr. L. J. Briggs, Physicist of Bureau of Plant Industry, reported that the dried plant showed no special amount of radio-activity.^a

Power and Cambier, Sayre, and Kennedy had previously called attention to the abundance of calcium in the plant, and the writer's investigations confirm this. Pharmacologists are averse to believing calcium given per os poisonous. The writer has, however, fed 5 grams of the acetate of calcium in solution to a rabbit weighing 652 grams. This animal died in two hours, with marked irritation of the stomach, the result being due to the so-called "salt action." Much larger amounts were fed in divided doses, but without injury. Calcium phosphate and calcium sulphate in 2-gram doses proved harmless to a rabbit weighing about 1,400 grams. Three grams of magnesium acetate^b were fed in solution for five successive days to a rabbit weighing 1,417 grams, but without apparent effect.

Strontium acetate c. p., in 2-gram doses, likewise caused no disturbance.^c No strontium in any amount recognizable by chemical tests was proved in the plant. So that by a process of exclusion the writer was forced to think of barium as the main cause of the trouble.

The writer noted that if the ashed plant was extracted with H_2SO_4 water and this extract freed from sulphuric acid with PbCO_3 and H_2S the solution proved inactive to rabbits and also that after this extraction the acetic acid extract of the ash failed to kill. In other words, the sulphate of our body was insoluble in water. At times in passing H_2S into active solutions of the ashed plant freed from the acetic acid by evaporation the filtrate and likewise the precipi-

^a *Acqua, C. Sull'accumulo di Sostanze Radioattive nel Vegetali. Atti della Reale Accad. del Lincei, 5 s, vol. 16, sem. 2, p. 357. 1907.*

^b *Compare Meltzer, S. J. Toxicity of Magnesium Nitrate When Given by Mouth. Science, vol. 26, p. 473. 1907.*

^c *Burgassi, G. Modificaz. del Ricambio per Azione dello Stronzio. Archiv. di Farmacol., vol. 6, p. 551. 1907.*

tate were inactive. Noyes and Bray^a have noted that if H₂S is passed into certain solutions in the presence of an oxydizing agent, such as ferric iron, H₂SO₄ would be formed, which would throw any barium out of solution.

In one blood-pressure record made with a dog (vagi nerves cut), a rise in blood pressure (a characteristic physiological action of barium) was seen to follow the intravenous injection of the aqueous extract of the plant, in spite of its normal acid reaction.

Accidentally the writer found that Sprengel^b had reported the presence of barium in *Astragalus exscapus*, a closely allied plant. Barium has also been found in the vegetable world by Scheele in 1788, and later by Eckard,^c who found it in beech, while Forchhammer^d proved it in birch, and Lutterkorth found it in the soil of the same area in which Eckard worked. Dworzak^e noted the occurrence of traces of this element in wheat grown along the Nile, and Knop^f found it in the soil. Doctor Balfour, of Khartum, Egypt, informed the writer that he knew of no cases in which this barium in wheat had produced poisoning. Hornberger^g found barium both in the red beech grown in Germany and in the soil on which these trees grew. It has also been claimed that various marine plants may take up barium from the sea.^h

^a Noyes, A. A., and Bray, W. C. *System of Qualitative Analysis for the Common Elements*. Journ. Amer. Chem. Soc., vol. 29, pp. 168, 172, and 191. 1907.

NOTE.—Barium sulphate is nontoxic on account of its insolubility. Orfila fed 16–24 grams to dogs without causing any disturbance. Bary, A. Beitr. z. Baryumwirkung. Dorpat, 1888, p. 25.

^b Sprengel, C. Von den Substanzen der Ackerbrume und des Untergrundes, Journ. f. Techn. u. Oekon. Chem., vol. 3, p. 313. 1828.

^c Eckard, G. E. Baryt, ein Bestandtheil der Asche des Buchenholzes. Annal. der Chem. u. Pharm., n. s., vol. 23, p. 294. 1856.

^d Forchhammer, J. G. Ueber den Einfluss des Kochsalzes auf die Bildung der Mineralien. Annal. d. Physik u. Chemie, vol. 5, p. 91. 1905.—Lutterkorth, H. Kohlensäurer Baryt, ein Bestandtheil des Sandsteines in der Gegend von Göttingen. Annal. d. Chem. u. Pharm., n. s., vol. 23, p. 296. 1856.

^e Dworzak, H. Baryt unter den Aschenbestandtheilen des Ägyptischen Weizen. Landw. Versuchs.-Stat., vol. 17, p. 398. 1874.

^f Knop, W. Analysen von Nilabsatz. Landw. Versuchs.-Stat., vol. 17, p. 65. 1874.—Compare also Demoussy, E., Absorption par les Plantes de Quelques Sels Solubles, Thèse, Paris, 1899.—Knop, W., Einige neue Resultate der Untersuchung über die Ernährung der Pflanze, Ber. d. Verhandl. d. königl. sächs. Gesells. d. Wissens. zu Leipzig, Math. Phys. Cl., vol. 29, p. 113, 1877.—Suzuki, U., Can Strontium and Barium Replace Calcium in Phænogams? Bul. Coll. Agric. Tokio Imp. Univ., vol. 4, p. 69, 1900–1902.

^g Hornberger, R. Ueber d. Vorkommen d. Baryums in d. Pflanze und im Boden. Landw. Versuchs.-Stat., vol. 51, p. 473. 1899.

^h Roscoe, H. E., and Schorlemmer, C. *Treatise on Chemistry*, vol. 2, p. 455. 1897.

Hillebrand ^a has called attention to the fact that the igneous rocks of the Rocky Mountains showed a higher percentage of barium than rock from other portions of the United States, so that under these conditions one might expect the presence of barium in plants growing in this region. A sample of *Aragallus lamberti* and one of *Astragalus mollissimus* were sent to the Bureau of Chemistry for spectroscopic examination for various elements and they reported traces of barium in each.^b

With these arguments the writer felt sure of the presence of barium, and the matter was discussed with Dr. E. C. Sullivan, of the United States Geological Survey, and he kindly corroborated the conclusions reached as to the presence of barium, controlling its presence by means of the spectroscope, and estimated it roughly as 0.1 per cent BaO in the ash of a sample of *Aragallus lamberti* (6.3 milligrams BaSO₄ in 4 grams ash). This determination was made by Hillebrand's method.

Kobert has anticipated this result, saying that "all plants are in the position occasionally to take up barium combinations from the soil," and "the plants which thus contain barium may act injuriously to men and animals."^c

TOTAL ASH DETERMINATIONS OF LOCO PLANTS.

The reports of the ash analyses of the loco plants show marked variations in the total amount of the ash. Thus, from *Aragallus lamberti* Dyrenforth obtained 4.32 per cent and O'Brine 13.52 per cent of ash. The Bureau of Chemistry analyzed two different samples of this dried plant and reported in one case 11.15 per cent and in the second 11.64 per cent of ash. O'Brine ^d obtained 13.52

^a Hillebrand, W. F. Analysis of Silicate and Carbonate Rocks. Dept. Interior, U. S. Geol. Survey, Bul. 305, p. 18. 1907.

^b This report came from the Plant Analysis Laboratory of the Bureau of Chemistry, a different one from that which later controlled the writer's tests quantitatively and qualitatively. In other words, the conclusions of the writer as to the presence of barium were controlled by three separate individuals.

^c Kobert, R. Kann ein in einem Pflanzenpulver gefundener abnorm höher Barytgehalt erklärt werden durch direkte Aufnahme von Baryumsalze durch die lebende Pflanze aus dem Boden? Chem. Zeit., vol. 10, p. 491. 1899.

NOTE.—The writer has also found barium in entirely different botanical families from the loco weed, and it is hoped a report can shortly be made of some of these.

NOTE.—The first sample of ash analyzed by the Bureau of Chemistry had 0.21 per cent Fe₂O₃, 0.92 per cent Al₂O₃, 0.98 per cent CaO, 0.37 per cent MgO, 5.50 per cent SiO₂. The second lot was only examined for certain constituents, and gave K₂O, 2.25 per cent; CaO, 1.20 per cent; MgO, 0.41 per cent; P₂O₅, 0.52 per cent; and SO₃, 0.24 per cent.

^d The detailed analysis of O'Brine can be found on page 32 of this report.

per cent of ash from the same species. The writer's analysis^a gave in one sample of *Aragallus lamberti*, collected at Hugo, Colo., in 1907, 18.8 per cent of ash; a second lot (1907), 12.44 per cent; a third (1906), 11 per cent, and a fourth (May, 1905) gave 37.3 per cent of ash.^b One lot from Woodland Park, Colo. (October, 1906), gave 6.4 per cent. One lot from Hugo, Colo. (October, 1907), yielded 9.6 per cent.

In the case of *Astragalus mollissimus*, Wentz obtained 6.76 per cent, Sayre 12.01 per cent, Kennedy 20 per cent, O'Brine 12.15 per cent, while the sample analyzed by the Bureau of Chemistry gave 18.4 per cent of ash. One sample from Kit Carson County, Colo. (December, 1906), which proved inactive physiologically, gave an ash content of 6.9 per cent. A sample of *Astragalus missouriensis* collected at Hugo, Colo., June, 1907, yielded an ash content of 21.8 per cent, and an *Astragalus missouriensis* collected at Pierre, S. Dak., September, 1907, yielded 27 per cent. An *Astragalus nitidus* from Custer, S. Dak. (July, 1907), gave 5.2 per cent ash, while an *Astragalus nitidus* collected at Woodland Park, Colo., in October, 1906, yielded 7.8 per cent, and another specimen of *Astragalus nitidus* also collected at Woodland Park, Colo., in October, 1907, gave 12.2 per cent. An *Astragalus drummondii* from Custer, S. Dak. (July, 1907), gave 5.9 per cent. *Astragalus pectinatus* (Hugo, June, 1907) yielded 6.1 per cent. A fresh (undried) specimen of *Astragalus mollissimus* (unknown origin, November, 1907) yielded 3.8 per cent of ash. One sample of *Astragalus decumbens* (Ephraim, Utah, August, 1907) gave 21.8 per cent of ash.

These determinations must necessarily be only approximate, as the plants were collected by different persons who exercised different degrees of care in freeing them from adherent soil, and possibly in drying the plants, so that the main value of these figures is their aid in determining the amount of barium present.

BARIUM DETERMINATIONS IN THE ASH OF LOCO PLANTS.

Attention has been called to the fact that in ashing plants containing barium a part at least of this barium is converted into the insoluble sulphate and a part into the carbonate, so that the characteristic pharmacological action of the ash will depend not upon the total barium present, but upon the form in which it occurs—little action if much BaSO_4 and more complete if more BaCO_3 results. A further difficulty in the recognition of barium in plants

^a All ash and barium determinations were made from the dried plants save when otherwise specified.

^b Evidently these plants must have been imperfectly freed from soil.

is due to the fact that certain inorganic salts interfere with the precipitation by H_2SO_4 .

A specimen of *Aragallus lamberti* (Hugo, summer of 1907) with 12.44 per cent of ash was examined for its barium content by Hillebrand's method.^a The method was as follows:

Two grams of the ash were first fused with sodium carbonate and the fused mass washed with water containing sodium carbonate. The residue was washed into a beaker and treated with a few drops of sulphuric acid. The residue now remaining was filtered and after ignition was treated with hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids. After evaporating off these acids, the residue was treated with sulphuric acid water, filtered, and then fused with sodium carbonate. After extracting with sodium carbonate water, the residue was dissolved in just enough hydrochloric acid and precipitated with sulphuric acid. The precipitate was dissolved in concentrated sulphuric acid and reprecipitated by water and weighed as BaSO_4 .^b So far as the writer can ascertain, there have been no control experiments made for this method to determine the experimental error.

Of the above ash, 1.998 grams gave 5.2 milligrams of BaSO_4 , which would correspond to 75.75 milligrams of barium acetate crystals— $\text{Ba}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2)_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ —in 200 grams of the dried plant. The residue by the Hillebrand method after weighing was tested with the spectroscope and gave a bright spectrum for barium. The same ash was analyzed by the Bureau of Chemistry, using a shorter method, and they reported 2.7 milligrams of barium sulphate in 1.1217 grams of ash. A second sample collected earlier in the summer, with an ash content of 18.6 per cent, was shown to yield barium corresponding to 3.4 milligrams of BaSO_4 in 2.5 grams of the ash.^c

One lot of *Aragallus lamberti* collected at Hugo, Colo., in May, 1905, and which gave an ash content of 37.3 per cent, was found to yield 3 milligrams of BaSO_4 from 1.998 grams of ash, or 173.88 milligrams of $\text{Ba}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2)_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ in 200 grams of the dried plant, but this ash also contained 0.27 per cent of SO_3 . The Bureau of Chemistry reported the barium to correspond to 2.9 milligrams of BaSO_4 in 2.45 grams of the ash.

The *Astragalus missouriensis* (Hugo, June, 1907), with an ash content of 21.8 per cent, gave 3 milligrams of BaSO_4 in 2.01 grams

^a Hillebrand, W. F. Analysis of Silicate and Carbonate Rocks. U. S. Geol. Surv. Bul. 305, p. 116. 1907. See also Folin, O., On the Reduction of Barium Sulphate in Ordinary Gravimetric Determinations, in Journ. Biol. Chem., vol. 3, p. 81. 1907.

^b All the determinations of barium which resulted either positively or negatively were made with the same bottle of sodium carbonate and H_2SO_4 , so that impurities in the chemicals were thus eliminated.

^c Report from Bureau of Chemistry.

of ash, or 76.58 milligrams of $\text{Ba}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2)_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ in 200 grams of the dried plant. The residue after weighing was tested spectroscopically and gave a bright barium spectrum.

The *Astragalus drummondii* from Custer, S. Dak. (1906), *Astragalus mollissimus* from Kit Carson County, Colo. (December, 1906), and *Astragalus nitidus* from Woodland Park, Colo. (October, 1907), were reported by the Bureau of Chemistry to contain no barium.

The ash of the *Astragalus pectinatus* (Hugo, June, 1907) was reported by the Bureau of Chemistry to show no barium on spectroscopic examination.

Two grams of active loco plant ash yielded from 5 to 6 milligrams of BaSO_4 , but it can be easily seen that in multiplying this amount to correspond to 200 grams of the dried plant errors would be likely to arise, so that the whole amount of barium would not necessarily be accounted for.

ANALYSIS OF SOILS.

One sample of the soil from near Hugo, Colo., from which the *Aragallus lamberti* was collected, was examined by the Bureau of Soils, and that Bureau reported the absence of barium and zirconium, at least of any recognizable by the chemical methods used, so that it can not be said that the barium came from any soil accidentally mixed with the ash. Traces of titanium were, however, found. Evidently the plant must collect minimal quantities of these elements from the soil and store them.

The water from a well of an adjacent area was examined by the Bureau of Chemistry and reported to contain 37.4 parts of calcium and 13.7 parts of magnesium in one million, and that the water contained no barium.^a

FEEDING EXPERIMENTS WITH BARIUM SALTS ON ANIMALS IN THE LABORATORY.

On these figures the writer took 0.2 gram of crystallized barium acetate c. p., using the acetate because acetic acid has been proved in certain loco plants by Power and Cambier, and after dissolving it in water fed it at 9.45 a. m. to a rabbit weighing 1,177 grams. The head soon fell forward so that the nose rested on the ground. At 10.58 a. m. the rabbit seemed unable to guide itself and would run into obstructions if forced to move. There was no diarrhea but it urinated several times. There was a peculiar tremor of the muscles noted. The animal would not startle by sudden noises and at 11.06

^a Barium has been found in well water in England. See Thorpe, T. E., Contribution to the History of the Old Sulphur Well, Harrogate, in *Philos. Mag.*, 5 s., vol. 2, p. 50, 1876.

a. m. could be placed on its back with ease. The pupils appeared about normal. The whites of the eyes showed very prominently. At 11.35 a. m. the fore legs were paralyzed. The following morning the animal was dead, its weight being 1,120 grams. The heart was dilated; the stomach was not hemorrhagic, but rather pale.

A second rabbit, which weighed 1,630 grams, was fed with a solution of 0.5 gram of the same salt at 9.42 a. m. At 10.35 a. m. the animal passed soft stools and showed a marked disinclination to move, with evidence of pain. The diarrhea* became more marked and the animal's hind quarters were soiled with feces. At 10.48 a. m. there was marked incoordination of the limbs and inability to stand. Finally, at 10.56 a. m., convulsions began and the animal died at 11.02 a. m. The autopsy was made about two hours later. The animal was then rigid. The kidneys seemed rather congested. The intestines were relaxed; mesenteric vessels dilated. The pyloric region of the stomach appeared hemorrhagic.

A third rabbit, fed like the preceding with 0.5 gram of barium acetate, showed much the same result. In this case there was some retching, but the other symptoms were as above, the animal dying in one hour and five minutes. No hemorrhages were seen in the stomach walls. It was noted that after the administration of certain doses, 0.2 gram, there was no diarrhea.

On September 23, 1907, a rabbit weighing 1,757 grams was fed at 10.42 a. m. with 0.1 gram of the same barium acetate. The temperature at the time of feeding was 102.9° F. At 12.05 a. m. the animal urinated. Temperature, 101.4° F. On September 24 the animal weighed the same. Temperature at 10.55 a. m., 102.3° F. The same amount of barium was fed. At 3.40 p. m. the temperature was 102.5° F. On September 25 the animal weighed 1,800 grams. Temperature, 102.2° F. at 10.39 a. m. The dose of barium was repeated. At 3.55 p. m. the temperature was 101.4° F. On September 26 at 9.38 a. m. the temperature was 101.1° F., and again the barium was given. At 3.57 p. m. the temperature was 101.5° F. On September

* Magnus, R. Wirkungsweise u. Angriffspunkt einiger Gifte am Katzendarm. *Archiv. f. Gesam. Physiol.*, vol. 108, p. 44, 1905.

NOTE.—Reports on the histological changes in acute barium poisoning can be found in Pilliet, A., and Malbec, A. Note sur les Lésions Histologiques du Rein Produits par les Sels de Baryte sur les Animaux. *Comp. Rend. Hebd. Soc. de Biol.*, vol. 4, p. 957. 1892.

Literature on the pharmacology of barium not otherwise referred to is as follows: Boehm, R. Ueber d. Wirkungen d. Barytsalze auf d. Thierkörper. *Arch. f. Exp. Path.*, vol. 3, p. 217. 1875.—Sommer, F. Beitr. z. Kennt. d. Baryum-Vergiftung. Dissert., Würzburg, 1890.—Neumann, J. Ueber den Verbleib der in den thierischen Organismus eingeführten Bariums Salzen. *Archiv. f. Gesam. Physiol.*, vol. 36, p. 576. 1885.—Heffner, A. Ausscheidung körperfremder Substanzen im Harn, *Ergeb. d. Physiol.*, pt. 1, p. 121. 1903.—

27 the rabbit weighed 1,772 grams. The temperature at 9.53 a. m. was 102.3° F. The barium was fed for the fifth time. At 10.27 a. m. there were general convulsions. The eyes teared. At 10.32 a. m. soft stools appeared and the animal urinated. Stools were passed at various periods. At 11.30 a. m. there were no signs of pain on pinching the ear. At 11.58 a. m. the animal retched. The animal was lying with the fore legs wide apart and could not support itself. At 12.05 p. m. the temperature was 98° F. and the rabbit died shortly after.

The peritoneal cavity seemed normal. The small intestines were relaxed, while the mesenteric vessels were dilated. The kidneys seemed congested. The stomach walls were pink and in places covered with mucus. The heart was relaxed save the left ventricle, which seemed firm.

On September 23, 1907, a second rabbit, weighing 1,360 grams, was fed with a similar solution and the feeding was repeated at the same time the first rabbit was fed. On September 27 the animal weighed 1,416 grams. On this day a peculiar movement of the hind legs on jumping appeared, apparently due to an inability to draw the legs completely up, and the fore legs were spread wide apart, as if too weak to support the animal. The temperature had also fallen. On September 28 the animal had apparently recovered. Weight, 1,516 grams on October 21.

On September 23, 1907, a third rabbit, weighing 1,304 grams, was fed with 50 milligrams of barium acetate. This dose was repeated each time the other two rabbits were fed. On September 27 it weighed 1,304 grams. Marked muscular twitching appeared, with disinclination to move. Finally there were convulsions and paralysis of the limbs. No stools were seen. This animal lay quiet all night,

Binet, P. *Recherches Compar. sur l'Action Physiol. des Métaux Alcalins et Alcalino-terreux.* Rev. Méd. de la Suisse. Romande, vol. 12, pp. 535, 607. 1892.—Cyon, M. Ueber d. toxisch. Wirkung. d. Baryt- u. Oxalsäureverbindungen. Archiv. f. Anat., Physiol. u. Wissens. Med., 1866, p. 196.—Mickwitz, L. Vergleich. Untersuch. il. d. physiol. Wirkung d. Salze d. Alkalien u. Alcal. Erden. Dissert., Dorpat, 1874.—Heilborn, F. Ueber Veränderungen im Darne nach Vergift. mit Arsen, Chlorbarium und Phosphor. Dissert., Würzburg, 1891.—Reincke, J. J. Ein Fall mehrfacher Vergiftung durch kohlen-säuren Baryt. Viertelj. f. gerichtl. Med., n. s., vol. 28, p. 248. 1878.—Orfila, Mémoire sur l'Empoisonnement par les Alcalis Fixes. Journ. de Chimie Méd., 2 s., vol. 8, p. 200. 1842.—Santi, L. Se nel Veneficio per Sali di Bario questo Metallo passa alla Urina? Gazz. Chem. Ital., vol. 33, pt. 2, p. 202. 1903.—Weber, F. R. Barium Chloride. Milwaukee Med. Journ., vol. 12, pp. 39, 60. 1904.—Rabuteau. De l'Innocuité des Sels de Strontium Comparée a l'Activité du Chlorure de Baryum. Gaz. Méd. de Paris, 3 s., vol. 24, p. 218. 1869.—The very early literature is considered in detail by Bary.

apparently unable to move, and continued on its side until 3.15 p. m. on September 28, when it gradually recovered, weighing 1,346 grams on October 24.

On October 24, 1907, a rabbit weighing 1,346.5 grams was fed with a solution of 25 milligrams of crystallized barium acetate. On the next day the weight was 1,318 grams, and the dose was repeated. On October 26 it weighed 1,275.7 grams, and the dose was repeated; on October 30 it weighed 1,332 grams, and on October 31 its weight was 1,375 grams. The animal died at night on November 6; weight, 1,134 grams. The post-mortem examination, made with Dr. Meade Bolton, of the Bureau of Animal Industry, was negative save for the presence of necrotic tissue in one enlarged thyroid.

On October 24, 1907, a rabbit weighing 1,332 grams was fed with a solution of 25 milligrams of crystallized barium acetate. On the next day the animal weighed the same, and the dose was repeated. On October 26 it weighed 1,289 grams, and the same amount of barium was given. On October 28 the weight was 1,219 grams and two days later 1,289 grams.

On October 31, 1907, a rabbit weighing 723 grams was fed with a solution of 25 milligrams of barium acetate. This rabbit was fed in all nine times during a period of ten days. At the end of this time it weighed 779 grams and died six days later, weighing 723 grams. The post-mortem was negative.

A rabbit weighing 779 grams was also fed on October 31, 1907, with a similar amount of barium. This dose was repeated six times during an interval of eight days. At the end of that time the animal still retained its normal weight. On November 14, 1907, it weighed 709 grams, having lost 70 grams. Thus after daily doses of 0.1 gram of crystallized barium acetate no symptoms appeared until the fifth day, when death resulted. After the similar administration of 50 milligrams severe symptoms developed on the same day, but the animal recovered. After the administration of 25 milligrams on three successive days the animal died. In other cases of feeding 25 milligrams for several successive days, some lost weight and died; others merely lost in weight, but recovered.

Bary fed a rabbit weighing 0.9 kilogram a solution of 30 milligrams of barium chlorid on one day, on the second day 90 milligrams, and on the third day 30 milligrams. The only symptom noted was diarrhea. The animal died on the fifth day. In other words, after feeding small doses of barium salts for several days acute symptoms suddenly set in, showing a cumulative action. This cumulative action has been noted on man.^a

^a Bary, A. Beitr. z. Baryumwirkung. Dissert., Dorpat, 1888, p. 100.

Onsum^a fed a medium-sized rabbit daily with small doses of barium carbonate, beginning with 20 milligrams. When the total amount reached 0.19 grams the rabbit died. The animal before death showed paralysis, respiratory disturbances, and fall in temperature. The sensibility of the cornea diminished, but the pupils responded to light. The stomach walls showed ecchymoses and the blood vessels of the brain, the spinal cord, and the abdominal vessels were dilated. Emboli in the pulmonary arteries were also noted.

In a rabbit the application of 0.66 gram of barium chlorid to a wound was followed in twenty minutes by convulsions, paralysis, and finally coma and death.^b

Of barium nitrate 0.66 gram mixed with sugar and fed to a rabbit caused death in less than one hour, and 0.33 gram induced death in another rabbit in twenty-seven hours.^c

Six grains (0.4 gram) of barium iodid fed in solution to a rabbit caused death the following day. On this day there were tremors of the neck and shoulders with convulsive movements of the limbs. There was also grinding of the teeth. "The mucous membrane of the stomach was rose-red at the cardia, and softened." Membranes of the cord and brain also were congested.^d

For rabbits weighing 1,500 to 2,000 grams the lethal dose of barium chlorid on subcutaneous use is stated to be 0.05 to 0.06 grams.^e

A rabbit weighing 1,106 grams was fed with a solution containing 50 milligrams of crystallized barium acetate c. p. and 50 milligrams of zirconium chlorid (pure). In fifty-seven minutes the animal showed difficulty in moving the fore legs, developing marked paralysis of the same about five hours later, and died the following morning—that is, twenty-two hours after feeding. The heart was found dilated, kidneys congested, stomach walls pink and covered in places with mucus and partly digested blood, and cerebral dural vessels dilated, but no clots were seen; bladder full.

Mixtures of 0.5 gram of calcium acetate and 50 milligrams of barium acetate failed to kill. Mixtures of titanium and barium were not tried, as no titanium salt soluble in water and of neutral reaction was accessible.

^a Onsum, J. Ueber d. toxisch. Wirkung. der Baryt- und Oxalsäureverbindungen. Arch. f. Path. Anat., vol. 28, p. 234. 1863.

^b Brodie, B. C. Further Experiments and Observations on the Action of Poisons on the Animal System. Philos. Trans., vol. 102, p. 218. 1812.

^c Tidy, C. M. On Poisoning by Nitrate of Baryta. Med. Press and Circ., vol. 6, p. 448. 1868.

^d Glover, R. M. On the Physiological and Medicinal Properties of Bromine and Its Compounds. Edinb. Med. & Surg. Journ., vol. 58, p. 341. 1842.

^e Kissner, G. Ueber Baryum Vergiftungen u. deren Einfluss auf d. Glykogengehalt der Leber. Scholten, 1896, p. 11.

Mittelstaedt called attention to the fact that pregnant rabbits were more easily affected by the barium administration than nonpregnant ones, and noted abortion in one case.^a

One gram of the barium carbonate killed a dog in eight hours. A second dog died in fifteen hours. Both of these animals vomited so that a portion of this must have been lost.^b Barium carbonate was formerly employed as a rat poison.^c

Of barium chlorid 0.6 gram, fed in aqueous solution, caused death in a dog in forty-eight minutes if vomiting was prevented.^d

In Tidy's hands 2 grams of the barium nitrate caused death in a small terrier in three and three-fourth hours. This dog had slight convulsions, was almost unable to stand, and had vomiting and purging. The reflexes were diminished. A small dog recovered only completely in five days after being fed 0.66 gram, while a large dog after being fed 1.3 grams only recovered after two days.

In cats 0.8 gram of barium carbonate when introduced into a wound caused on the third day languor, slow respiration, feeble pulse, twitching of hind legs, dilated pupils, and death.^e

BARIUM POISONING IN MAN.

The high toxicity of barium was called attention to by early observers, but it was attributed by some to admixed arsenic. The reports of feeding experiments with barium on animals have varied markedly, but now care is being advised in the use of barium salts.^f

Barium was introduced into medicine in the treatment of scrofula, but has fallen into disuse, and only recently attention has been called to it on account of its action on the circulatory system. Filippi.^g

^a Mittelstaedt, F. Ueber chronische Bariumvergiftung. Dissert., Greifswald, 1895, p. 19.

^b Pelletier, D. Observations sur la Strontiane. *Annal. de Chimie*, vol. 21, p. 119. 1797.

^c Christison, R. *Treatise on Poisons*. Edinburgh, 1845, p. 579.—Crampe, *Bewährte Mittel gegen Feldmäuse*. *Deutsch. Landw. Presse*, vol. 5, p. 530. 1878.—Felletar, E. *Fälle von Intox. mit kohlensäur. Baryum*. *Pest. Med.-Chir. Presse*, vol. 28, p. 1072. 1892.

^d Husemann, T. Ein Beitrag z. Kennt. d. Barytvergiftungen. *Zeits. f. pract. Heilk.*, vol. 3, p. 235. 1866. In this article Husemann has collected many cases of poisoning by barium in animals.

^e Christison, R. *Treatise on Poisons*. Edinburgh, 1845, p. 579.

^f According to v. Jaksch, "Sie ist bei der grossen Toxicität der Substanz immer ernst zu stellen." *Vergiftungen*, 1897, p. 79.

NOTE.—A thorough pharmacological study of some barium salt is much needed, and it is hoped that the writer will be able to complete this work.

^g Filippi, E. *Modificaz. del Ricambio Organico per Azione del Cloruro di Bario*. *La Sperimentale*, vol. 60, p. 610. 1906; *Sull' Azione Cardiacca del Cloruro di Bario*. *Archivio di Farmacol. Speriment.*, vol. 5, p. 122. 1906.

however, says, "The effects on the heart and on the pressure are already the first indication of poisoning." This metal has also been used in the treatment of chronic diseases of the spinal cord, as multiple sclerosis and paralysis agitans.^a

After the administration to a woman of $\frac{1}{12}$ grain (0.005 gram) of barium chlorid three to five times a day for a few days, a total of 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ grains (0.135 gram), the patient developed rapid respiration, tenderness over the epigastrium, nausea, constipation, cramps in the limbs, loss of appetite, weakness, great emaciation, dysuria, some deafness with tinnitus, difficulty in speaking and thinking, with vertigo.^b In this case the eyes were glassy, the vision indistinct, and the cheeks flushed. Kohl after the use of small doses of the same noted salivation, swelling of the gums, and falling out of the teeth, with a mercurial odor to the breath. Christison^c states: "I have known violent vomiting, gripes, and diarrhea produced in like manner by a quantity not exceeding the usual medicinal doses." According to Kennedy few persons are able to bear $\frac{1}{8}$ grain (0.0075 gram) of barium chlorid.^d

In Carpenter's case after three doses of 1.6 grains (0.070 gram) of barium chlorid the patient developed almost lethal symptoms.^e Carpenter calls attention to the drowsiness which developed in this patient after the administration of barium, a fact which had already been noted by Christison.^f

A cartarrhal affection of various mucous membranes and a swelling of various glands have been noted, especially of the lymph and salivary glands, and in the male the testes have at times swollen.^g The inflammation of the glands may pass on to suppuration. The skin becomes dry and shows a tendency to crack. Febrile attacks are reported after the repeated use of small doses of barium.

^a Schulz, H. Vorles. ü. Wirkung. u. Anwendung d. unorganisch. Arzneistoffe. Leipzig, 1907, p. 234.—Hare, H. A. Use of Barium Chloride in Heart Disease. Med. News, vol. 54, p. 183. 1889.

^b Ferguson, J. C. Symptoms of Poisoning from Muriate of Barytes. Dublin Quart. Journ. Med. Sci., vol. 1, p. 271. 1846.

^c Christison, R., l. c., p. 580.

^d Kennedy, H. Dose of the Muriate of Barytes. Lancet, vol. 2, p. 28. 1873.

^e Carpenter, J. S. Barium Chloride from a Clinical Standpoint. Med. News, vol. 50, p. 93. 1891.

^f Christison, R., l. c., 1845, p. 578.

^g Schulz, H. Vorles. ü. Wirkung. u. Anwendung d. unorganisch. Arzneistoffe. Leipzig, 1907, p. 233.—Schwillgné, C. J. A. Traité de Mat. Méd., 3 ed., vol. 1, p. 441. 1818.

NOTE.—According to the files of the Office of Poisonous-Plant Investigations, E. D. Smith reported in the Orange Judd Farmer, 1897, that loosed animals showed a swelling of various glands. As yet the writer has been unable to verify this reference,

Scheibler^a has called attention to the possibility of producing *chronic* barium poisoning in man from the use of barium in the manufacture of food products.

Acute cases of poisoning in man from four or more grams of barium carbonate or chlorid or nitrate have been reported more or less frequently.^b In the acute case of poisoning in man reported by Tiraboschi and Taito, no macroscopic changes were noted in the stomach mucosa.^c Lopes^d has reported one case of acute poisoning in man from less than 1 gram of barium chlorid. In this case paralysis of the limbs was a marked feature. Stern^e cites Perondi and Lisfranc to the effect that "remarkably large doses of barium chlorid can be borne without injury by gradually increasing the doses (dissolved in much water)." Lisfranc^f has suggested that the sensitiveness to poisoning by barium salts is greater in certain climates than in others.

No data are as yet available as to the influence of altitude and partial starvation on the toxicity of barium salts. As is well known,

^a Scheibler, C. Ueber d. Verwendung giftiger Stoffe, besonders d. Barytverbindungen bei d. Zuckerfabrication. Chem. Zeit., vol. 11, p. 1463. 1887.

^b Schmidt's Jahrbücher, vol. 192, p. 131. 1881.—Walsh, J. Report of a Case of Poisoning by Chloride of Barium. Lancet, vol. 1, p. 211. 1859.—Walch. Seltener Fall einer tödlich. Vergiftung d. Baryta muriatica. Zeits. f. Staatsarznk., vol. 30, p. 1. 1835.—Carpenter, J. S. Barium Chloride from a Clinical Standpoint. Med. News, vol. 59, p. 93. 1891.—Eschricht. Dødeligt forløbende Forgiftning med salpetersurt Baryt. Ugeskrift for Læger, vol. 4, p. 241. 1881.—Ogier and Socquet. Empoisonnement par le Chlorure de Baryum. Annal. d'Hyg. Publ., 3 s., vol. 25, p. 447. 1891.—Chevallier, A. Note sur un Cas d'Empoisonnement Déterminé par l'Acétate de Baryte. Annal. d'Hyg. Publ., 2 s., vol. 39, p. 395. 1873.—Courtin, Cas d'Empoisonnement par du Chlorure de Baryum. Rev. d'Hyg., vol. 4, p. 653. 1882.—Poisoning by a Baryta Compound. Pharm. Journ., 3 s., vol. 2, p. 1021. 1872.—Reichardt, E. Vergiftungsfalle mit kohlen säurem Baryt. Arch. d. Pharm., 3 s., vol. 4, p. 426. 1874.—Lagarde, P. Acétate de Baryte livré sous le Nom de Sulfovinat de Soude. Union Méd., 3 s., vol. 14, p. 537. 1872.—Baum. Zwei Fälle von fahrlässiger Tödtung durch salpetersäures Baryt. Zeits. f. Medizinalbeamte, vol. 9, p. 759. 1896.—Funaro, A. Sul Veneficio per Sali di Bario. L'Orosi, vol. 12, p. 397. 1894.

^c Tiraboschi, A., and Taito, F. Avvelenamento da Bario. Il Risveglio Medico d'Abruzzo e Molise, vol. 1, p. 171. 1906.

NOTE.—A criticism of this case is to be found in Bellisari, G., Su Di un Presunto Avvelenamento da Bario. Il Risveglio Medico d'Abruzzo e Molise, vol. 2, p. 15. 1907.

^d Lopes, A. Caso Curioso de Envenenamento Pelo Chloret de Bario. Medicina Contempt., Lisbon, vol. 4, p. 109. 1886.

^e Stern, E. Vergiftung mit Chlorbarium. Zeits. f. Medizinalbeamte, vol. 9, p. 383. 1896.

NOTE.—The writer has always theoretically questioned the danger of poisoning by loco weeds in well-fed and well-watered animals. Compare Stalker, M., The "Loco" Plant and Its Effect on Animals. Bur. Animal Industry, 3d Ann. Report (1886), p. 271. 1887.

^f Lisfranc. Leçon sur l'Emploi du Muriate de Baryte contre les Tumeurs Blanches. Gaz. Méd. de Paris, 2 s., vol. 4, p. 215. 1836.

almost all recorded cases of locoed animals have occurred at a high altitude.

It must also be remembered that the addition of one salt to the solution of another may greatly increase the toxicity of the first one. Thus, the addition of a few milligrams of barium chlorid to a solution of a sulphocyanate renders the latter much more poisonous.^a This may be due to the fact that the salts are more completely ionized.

PATHOLOGICAL LESIONS IN EXPERIMENTAL BARIUM POISONING.

The post-mortem examinations in cases of acute experimental barium poisoning, according to Schedel,^b show punctiform or large hemorrhagic effusion in the fundus ventriculi^c and in the large and small intestines, contraction of the bladder, and hemorrhage into the walls of the bladder and uterus. The heart is usually found relaxed or the left ventricle contracted in systole, while the right is relaxed. Only once were ecchymoses under the endocardium seen. The liver and kidneys showed nothing special. The urine was free from albumen and sugar. In a few cases the lungs showed some infiltration with blood. In chronic cases, according to our own investigations in rabbits, there are no characteristic macroscopic lesions, a result which agrees with Mittelstaedt's report.^d Nothnagel and Rossbach^e claim that in chronic poisoning by barium the peripheral nerves are altered. The same negative results have also been reported in chronic poisoning in higher animals. Reynolds^f noted a layer like a blood clot under the cerebellum in a horse fed with barium chlorid. Fuchs^g has called attention to the fact that the flesh of cattle poisoned with barium chlorid was harmless, perhaps owing to a conversion into an insoluble salt, a fact which may be considered in the use of locoed animals for food.

^a Pauli, W., and Fröhlich, A. *Pharmakodynam. Studien.* Sitz. Kaiserl. Acad. d. Wissens. z. Wien, vol. 115, III, pt. 6, p. 445. 1906.

^b Schedel, H. *Beitr. z. Kennt. d. Wirkung des Chlorbariums.* 1903, p. 13.

^c After subcutaneous injection of barium chlorid, Lewin, by means of the spectroscope, has found barium in the stomach walls. Lewin, L. *Schicksal körperfremder chem. Stoffe im Menschen u. besonders ihre Ausscheidung.* Deutsch. Med. Woch., vol. 32, p. 173. 1906.

^d Mittelstaedt, F. *Ueber chronische Bariumvergiftung.* Dissert., Greifswald, 1895, p. 29.

^e Nothnagel, H., and Rossbach, M. J. *Handb. d. Arzneimittel,* p. 81. 1904.

^f Reynolds, M. H. *A Study of Certain Cathartics.* Minn. Agric. Exper. Sta., 15th Ann. Rept. 1907.

^g Fuchs, C. J. *Vergiftungsfälle durch salzsäuren Baryt beim Rindvieh.* Thierärztl. Mittheil., vol. 5, p. 159. 1870. Fuchs suggests that further investigations on this point are desirable. The literature of this class of experiments is very scanty. See Fröhner and Knudsen, *Einige Versuche über d. Genießbarkeit d. Fleisches vergift. Thiere.* Monats. f. Prakt. Thierheilk., vol. 1, p. 529. 1890.

TOXICITY OF VARIOUS AQUEOUS EXTRACTS OF LOCO PLANTS.

On October 21, 1907, a rabbit weighing 1,531 grams was fed with an extract of 95 grams of dried *Aragallus lamberti* (Hugo, Colo., 1907), with an ash content of 12.44 per cent, with a barium content estimated as 2.6 milligrams of BaSO_4 in 1 gram of ash. On the following day it weighed 1,517 grams, and the same dose was again administered. On October 23 the weight was 1,488 grams, and the dose was repeated. On the next day the weight was the same and the dose was repeated. On October 26 the weight was 1,446 grams, and again the same extract was given. On October 30 the animal weighed 1,502.5 grams; on October 31, 1,531 grams. The animal received a total extract of 475 grams of the dried plant without serious injury. This result was apparently contradictory to the earlier work.

On October 21, 1907, a rabbit weighing 1,743 grams was fed with an extract of 47.5 grams of the same dried plant. On the next day its weight was 1,729 grams, and the same amount of the extract was fed. On October 23 the weight remained the same, and the dose was repeated. On October 24 the weight was 1,658 grams, and the same amount of extract was fed. On October 26 the animal weighed 1,630 grams, when it was again fed with the same amount of extract. On October 28 the animal weighed 1,573.5 grams, but two days later the weight had risen to 1,644 grams. An extract of 237.5 grams had been administered. Here again the results appeared contradictory.

On October 21, 1907, a rabbit weighing 1,517 grams was fed with an extract of 77.5 grams. On the next day it weighed 1,545 grams, and the dose was repeated. On October 23 the animal weighed 1,531 grams, and the same amount of extract was given. On the following day it weighed 1,488 grams, and the dose was repeated. On October 26 it weighed 1,474 grams, and again the dose was repeated. On October 30 the weight had risen to 1,545 grams, and on October 31 it was 1,559 grams. This animal received in all an extract of 387.5 grams of the dried plant. An aqueous extract of 200 grams of the same in one dose also failed to produce the acute symptoms.

These feeding experiments show little of the characteristic action seen in the earlier experiments made with aqueous extracts either of the dry plant or of the fresh plant preserved with chloroform. In other words, the aqueous extract of the dried plant was only slightly poisonous, yet the plant from which the extract was made contained barium.

Of this same dried loco 200 grams were then extracted with water and digested with pepsin and finally with pancreatin in the thermostat (37.5° C.). The extract was concentrated and fed to a rabbit weighing 1,616 grams. After five hours and ten minutes the animal

appeared weak in the fore legs and unable to support himself, and he died during the night. The intestines the following morning were found full of gas, the stomach red, the lungs seemed normal, and the heart was relaxed.

A rabbit weighing 1,545 grams was fed on November 15, 1907, with a preparation made in a similar manner, save that the plant was not extracted with water before digestion. On the next day it weighed 1,517 grams and on November 19, 1,361 grams. The following day the weight was 1,318 grams; on November 21, 1,233 grams, and on the next day 1,162 grams. The animal died during the night, and the autopsy was made the following morning.

The animal was greatly emaciated and the subcutaneous fat had almost all disappeared. The mesenteric vessels were dilated, but the intestines were not dilated. The peritoneal cavity was normal. The kidneys were perhaps a little injected, and measured 3 cm. in length. The lungs were normal. The left ventricle was contracted and the rest of the heart relaxed. The liver was normal and the spleen apparently normal. The stomach walls were dark, owing to decomposition. No ulcers were seen. The suprarenals were perhaps a little enlarged. The examination of the brain was negative, and no clots were found.

A similar digestion from 200 grams of the same dried plant was then ashed and the ash treated with acetic acid and freed from acid by evaporation on the bath. The ash which was insoluble in water was ground up into a fine paste and the whole was fed to a rabbit weighing 992 grams. This animal died in forty minutes, showing the characteristic symptoms seen in acute cases already described. In the autopsy the lungs and other organs seemed perfectly normal macroscopically. The stomach walls, however, were reddened and ecchymotic, and the mesenteric vessels were dilated.

On January 8, 1908, a similar digestion of the same batch was treated with a few drops of sulphuric acid to remove the barium, and the filtrate was then treated with lead carbonate to remove the sulphuric acid. After careful filtering, H_2S was passed into the solution and after concentration was fed in one dose on January 9, 1908, to a rabbit. The following morning the rabbit had gained in weight. On January 14 this animal weighed 30 grams more than its initial weight.

The residue of this plant after such a digestion, examined by the Hillebrand method, showed no weighable amount of barium, so that it can be seen that barium in relatively large amount was found in the plant itself, but not after the digestion. It must therefore have been the aqueous digestion which produced the characteristic symptoms. The examination of this fluid for barium might, however, be

misleading, as the large amount of proteids would unquestionably interfere with the determination of this amount of barium, unprotected by other salts and silica, so that this side of the investigation was not pursued. Control feedings with an emulsion of one-half gram each of pepsin and pancreatin proved inactive.

Of the same *Aragallus lamberti* 200 grams were similarly digested and the barium was removed with a few drops of H_2SO_4 , the sulphuric acid by PbCO_3 and a little lead acetate, and the lead by H_2S . Such an extract it was shown in the previous experiment would not kill. However, to this extract was added 100 milligrams of crystallized barium acetate in a solution and a precipitate formed. Nevertheless, the liquid and the precipitate were fed on February 1, 1908, to a rabbit weighing 1,304 grams. On February 3 the animal weighed 1,233 grams; on February 4, 1,176 grams; February 5, 1,120 grams; February 6, 1,006 grams; February 7, 1,219 grams; February 8, 1,219 grams; February 10, 1,304 grams.

As a control for this animal, to make sure that the loss in weight was not due to the acetic acid set free by the treatment with H_2S , a similar aqueous extract of the same lot of *Aragallus lamberti* was precipitated with very much more lead acetate than in the preceding cases and also with lead subacetate and then H_2S . After evaporating to dryness this was fed on February 8, 1908, to a rabbit weighing 1,035 grams. On February 11 it weighed 1,021 grams; on February 13, 1,091 grams, and on February 15, 1,120 grams, showing a gain in weight.

Of the dried *Astragalus missouriensis* (Hugo, Colo., June, 1907) 400 grams with an ash content of 21.8 per cent and which was known to contain barium (3 mg. BaSO_4 in each 2 grams of the ash) were extracted with water and fed in four doses corresponding to 100 grams each in a period of four days. On November 18, 1907, the first day of feeding, this rabbit weighed 1,856.7 grams. Fifteen days later it weighed 1,984.3 grams.

One hundred grams of this dried plant after extraction with water were found to leave about 51.1 grams^a of the plant undissolved. This when ashed yielded 8.2 grams of ash. Two grams of this ash yielded 5 milligrams of BaSO_4 . In other words, the aqueous extract of the plant was inactive and the barium was found practically unextracted in the residue of the plant.

Evidently the barium in these dried plants had been converted into an insoluble form by drying or by some peculiarity of its metabolism, and was not extracted by water, but could be extracted by digesting the plants with the combined digestive ferments, pepsin and pancreatin.

^a Some was lost, being attached to the cloth used in squeezing the extract.

Of the same dried *Astragalus missouriensis* 200 grams were extracted with water and the extract treated with lead carbonate to remove any possible free sulphates and after filtering this was treated with H_2S to remove the lead. As the preceding experiment showed that the aqueous extract of this dried plant was harmless without barium, the writer decided to add barium artificially, and 100 milligrams of barium phosphate,^a crystallized, was added to the liquid and the whole fed to a rabbit weighing 2,423.9 grams. The following morning the rabbit was found dead. The autopsy was made by Dr. H. J. Washburn, of the Bureau of Animal Industry. He found that the suprarenals were enlarged and congested, and there were small areas of hepatization at the apex of each lung. There were also acute corrosion areas on the greater curvature of the stomach and over the upper portion of the duodenum.

Of the *Astragalus missouriensis* used in the preceding experiments, 200 grams were extracted thoroughly with water, and the extract corresponding to 100 grams, together with 80 milligrams of barium phosphate pure, was fed on March 12, 1908, to a rabbit weighing 1,261.5 grams. During this day the animal walked at times with an uncertain gait and the following morning it weighed 1,233 grams. It was then fed the rest of the solution, that is, the extract of the remaining 100 grams of the plant, but without any barium. The animal soon developed convulsions and died in a little over twenty-four hours after the original feeding. The autopsy, which was made by Dr. J. R. Mohler, of the Bureau of Animal Industry, showed that the mucous membrane of the stomach was markedly hemorrhagic and in areas gelatinous infiltration was very marked. In one portion of this hemorrhagic area there was distinct erosion. The large intestines were full of gas, the lungs were normal, the heart was relaxed, and the lungs collapsed. The blood vessels of the kidneys were markedly engorged.

Of the dried *Astragalus nitidus* (Woodland Park, Colo., October, 1907) which was reported by the Bureau of Chemistry as containing no barium, 200 grams were extracted with water and fed in 100-gram doses for two successive days. The animal increased steadily in weight and fifteen days after the first feeding had gained 99.2 grams. This amount of the plant was also extracted with water and the residue was then digested with pepsin and pancreatin in the thermostat, as in the previous case, and fed in two doses corresponding to 100 grams each. This animal increased in weight, gaining 60 grams in six days and 165 grams in addition after a further fifteen days.

^a This barium phosphate was determined by the Bureau of Chemistry to be $BaHPO_4$, and to contain traces of iron, sodium, and potassium, but it was free from arsenic.

An *Astragalus mollissimus* (Kit Carson County, Colo., December, 1906), which was also reported by the Bureau of Chemistry as containing no barium, was extracted with water, and a dose corresponding to an extract of 200 grams of the dried plant was fed in one dose without any serious result. The same amount of the dried plant was also similarly digested with pepsin and pancreatin and fed in two doses, but without the production of any symptoms, the rabbit gaining 60 grams in four days.

Of the *Aragallus lamberti* (Hugo, Colo., June, 1907), with an ash content of 12.44 per cent, 250 grams were ashed and the ash treated with acetic acid and, after evaporating off the acetic acid, was extracted with water and the ash digested with pepsin and pancreatin. The aqueous extract and the digestion products of the ash were then fed after concentration, but without any serious effects to the animal, indicating that in this plant the barium is in a form insoluble in water and in the ashing is further changed so that it can not now be made soluble by digestion—an opposite result to the experiment in which the barium was first rendered soluble by digestion and the digestion products ashed, suggesting a possibility that plants might be found in which the barium is not extracted by digestion, at present a hypothesis.

Of dried *Astragalus decumbens* (Ephraim, Utah, 1907), which was reported by the Bureau of Chemistry to contain no barium, 200 grams also failed to produce symptoms in rabbits by our test.

A solution containing 50 milligrams of barium acetate (crystallized) was mixed with an aqueous extract of 200 grams of the dried *Aragallus lamberti* which had proved inactive pharmacologically, but a precipitate formed (BaSO_4 ?) and the extract still remained inactive, suggesting that the question of toxicity depended not only upon the presence of barium, but also whether other agents, such as sulphates, etc., might not be present in sufficient amount to render the barium insoluble; that is, pharmacologically inactive.

This *Aragallus lamberti* yielded an ash content of 37.3 per cent, and the SO_3 group was estimated at 0.27 per cent of the ash, while a corresponding lot which was obtained two years later from the same area yielded an ash content of 12.44 per cent and a SO_3 content of 0.24 per cent of the ash.

It may be urged that the full lethal dose of the barium was not always found in the plant, yet it must be remembered that the toxic action was the resultant of the action of the total constituents and that if the barium was removed the extract was practically harmless.

In looking back over the work the most suitable preparation for producing the characteristic symptoms in rabbits seems to be the freshly ground-up plant mixed with water and preserved in chloroform, for while the dried plant might contain barium, yet the aque-

ous extract was often inactive, suggesting, perhaps, the presence of something in the fresh plant which aided the solution of the barium, thus accounting for the variations in toxicity of aqueous extracts made from plants dried under varying conditions. The nature of the compound in which barium exists in the plant is as yet unknown and has not been investigated. *It is important to remember that not only must barium be found in the plant to prove poisonous, but it must be in such a form that it can be extracted in the gastro-intestinal canal.*

The amount of barium found in various species of loco plants will no doubt vary, and perhaps the pharmacological test on rabbits as the writer has used it may have to be modified for such plants, so that at present the wisest plan to test these plants is to determine their barium content and also make the physiological test, as has been proposed, and if the barium content runs low, say below 0.11 per cent of the ash, in plants yielding from 12 to 18 per cent of ash, then to increase the number of feedings on the rabbit. No doubt on ranges where a large number of loco plants are eaten, with little other food, plants with a very low barium content may be poisonous, but if large amounts of other food are fed the writer would expect few, if any, serious results.

As the writer's work has been confined to the laboratory side of the loco-weed investigations no feeding experiments with barium salts have been made by him on large animals. Such experiments should, of course, be made under range conditions; that is, where the water and food supply is deficient.

THEORETICAL ANTIDOTE FOR LOCO-WEED POISONING.

The fact that treatment of the loco-weed extract with a few drops of sulphuric acid, which will remove the barium, renders these extracts harmless, and even apparently nutritious, would suggest the theoretical antidotal treatment to be with sulphates, in the form, perhaps, of epsom salts, but perhaps alkaline bicarbonates may be present in the stomach, either due to lessened acidity of the stomach or from drinking alkaline waters, in which case the precipitation of the barium by sulphates would presumably be interfered with, and thus the treatment be rendered ineffectual.^a It is interesting to note that most of the remedies proposed for the successful treatment of locoed animals contain sulphates.^b

In Storer's experiments on feeding rats with barium carbonate it was found that the barium carbonate would kill them, but if calcium carbonate was mixed with the barium the rats survived, sug-

^a Mendel, L. B., and Sicher, D. F., l. c., p. 148.

^b Mayo, N. S. Some Observations upon Loco. Kans. State Agric. Coll. Bul. 35, p. 119. 1893.

gesting an antidotal action. This apparent antagonism deserves further study and may lead to practical results.^a A somewhat similar antagonism for at least a part of the action of barium has been claimed to exist between barium and potassium.^b However, extracts of ashed plants, treated with acetic acid, which contained calcium and potassium, caused death in the experiments of the writer, but no work has yet been done by him as to the antidotal action of calcium carbonate on barium. Then, too, as Lüdeking^c pointed out, large quantities of calcium chlorid may interfere with the precipitation of barium as a sulphate. It is well known that the presence of various salts influences the solubility of barium sulphate in water,^d and the fact that barium has been found in solution in the urine in the presence of sulphates shows that the precipitation of barium as a sulphate in the body is not so simple as in test-tube experiments.^e Again, in very dilute solutions, such as must necessarily occur at any one time in the stomach, the precipitate with sulphates only slowly forms and the barium may be absorbed before the insoluble compound can be formed.^f Evidently an important point to be considered in the antidotal treatment of locoed animals with sulphates is the possibility of inducing a gastritis, with its attendant loss of weight. It therefore seems apparent that the proper treatment at present is preventive—that is, removal from the plants.

Lewin^g has suggested the possibility of acquiring some immunity to barium, but our experiments point against the production of any practical immunity.

ACTION OF BARIUM ON DOMESTIC AND FARM ANIMALS.

Barium in the form of barium chlorid has been recently introduced into veterinary therapeutics by Dieckerhoff^h in the treatment of

^a Storer, F. H. Experiments on Feeding Mice with Painter's Putty and with Other Mixtures of Pigments and Oils. *Bul. of Bussey Institute*, vol. 2, p. 274. 1884.

^b Brunton, T. L., and Cash, J. T. Contribution to Our Knowledge of the Connection between Chemical Constitution, Physiological Action, and Antagonism. *Philos. Trans. Royal Soc. London*, I, vol. 175, p. 229. 1884.

^c Lüdeking, C. Analyse d. Barytgruppe. *Zeits. f. Anal. Chem.*, vol. 29, p. 556. 1890.

^d Fraps, G. S. Solubility of Barium Sulphate in Ferric Chloride, Aluminum Chloride, and Magnesium Chloride. *Amer. Chem. Journ.*, vol. 27, p. 288. 1902.

^e Santi has paid special attention to the solubility of barium in the body.

^f Fresenius, C. G. *Man. of Qualitat. Chem. Anal.* Tr. by H. L. Wells, 1904, p. 148.

^g Lewin, L. *Nebenwirkungen d. Arzneimitteln*, 2 ed., p. 439. 1893.

^h Dieckerhoff. Ueber d. Wirkung d. Chlorbaryum bei Pferden, Rindern und Schafen. *Berliner Thierärztl. Woch.*, p. 265; see also pp. 313 and 337, 1895; Abstract in *Vet. Mag.*, vol. 2, p. 360. 1895.

constipation, but Winslow ^a says that "the doses required to produce catharsis in the horse are almost toxic," and he advises against the intravenous use of this remedy.

Fröhner ^b has carefully summarized the literature on the use of barium chlorid in veterinary work, and reports that its use in the Zürich clinic has recently been so unsatisfactory that it is now seldom employed and that in the last ten years the preponderance of reports in the literature are unfavorable to the use of this agent in colic.

After the administration per os, much of the barium must be carried off in the diarrheal stools. A number of deaths in horses have been attributed to the use of this agent. No doubt the presence of sulphates, etc., derived from the food would render the barium insoluble in the gastro-intestinal tract, and this would explain the lack of poisonous action in certain of the cases in which large doses of barium proved harmless.

Husard and Biron administered daily doses of 8 grams of barium chlorid to one horse, and the same amount of barium carbonate to a second horse, for several days. A fortnight later the first horse unexpectedly died, and the second a few days later. The post-mortem examination was negative.^c A third horse fed with barium carbonate also died suddenly. Recently barium occurring in brine has given rise to acute poisoning in stock.^d

In a case reported by Stietenroth ^e the horse died after the injection of 0.5 gram of barium chlorid into the jugular vein. A number of sudden deaths in horses after the intravenous injection of 0.7 gram and over of barium chlorid have been collected by Fröhner.^f The lethal dose by mouth for acute poisoning with barium chlorid in horses lies between 8 to 12 grams, while cattle require much larger doses (40 grams)^g to induce death.

Dieckerhoff advises against the use of barium chlorid in the treatment of constipation in sheep.

^a Winslow, K. *Vet. Materia Medica and Therapeutics*, p. 152. 1901.

^b Fröhner, E. *Lehrb. d. Arzneimittellehre*, p. 399. 1906. Fröhner gives a detailed account of these cases.

Original note in Ehrhardt, J. *Erfahrungen ü. ältere u. neue Arzneimittel*. *Schweizer Archiv. f. Thierheilk.*, vol. 41, p. 44. 1899.

^c Pelletier. *Observations on Strontian*. *Journ. Nat. Philos.*, vol. 1, p. 529. 1797; original in *Annales de Chimie*, vol. 21, p. 127. 1797.

^d Howard, C. D. *Occurrence of Barium in the Ohio Valley Brines and Its Relation to Stock Poisoning*. *W. Va. Univ. Agric. Exper. Sta. Bul.* 103. 1906.

^e Stietenroth. *Ueber Chlorbarium bei der Kolik der Pferde*. *Berliner Thierärztl. Woch.*, p. 16. 1899.

^f Fröhner, E. *Lehrb. d. Toxikol.*, 2 ed., p. 116. 1901.

^g Fröhner, E., 1. c., p. 116.

See similar reports in *Veterinarian*, vol. 68, p. 572, 1895, and vol. 69, p. 228, 1896; *Zeits. f. Veterinärk.*, vol. 8, pp. 99 and 211, 1896; Nagler, F., *Berliner Thierärztl. Woch.*, p. 65. 1896.

After a dose of 6 grams of barium chlorid a 2-year-old healthy ram appeared perfectly well, but the following day he was depressed, refused to eat, staggered, and became so weak that he was unable to stand. The muscles of the extremities were paralyzed and the animal died. "The post-mortem examination revealed oedema of the lungs, slight cloudiness of the heart muscles, numerous small hemorrhagic spots on the mucous membrane of the small intestine, and stagnation of the blood in the vessels of the small and large intestines. Similar symptoms and lesions were found in a lamb 4 months old which was given per os 6.0 grams of barium chlorid dissolved in 200 grams of distilled water."^a

Poisonings with barium carbonate have also been reported in pigs.^b Domestic animals pastured in the neighborhood of barite deposits soon succumb,^c and accidental cases of poisoning are reported in cows. Poisoning in dogs has also been reported after the subcutaneous use of this agent.^d Linossier says that if the barium salts are used for any time the salts are deposited in various organs, largely in the kidneys, brain, and medulla, but especially in the bones.^e

APPLICATION OF THE RESULTS OF THESE INVESTIGATIONS TO THE RANGE.

It has been calculated that a medium estimate of food for cattle on green fodder is about 60 pounds (30 kilos) a day.^f Calculating this entirely in terms of *Aragallus lamberti* and allowing 10 per cent of moisture for these plants (Sayre) would make 27 kilos of dry loco

^a Dieckerhoff, W. Vet. Mag., vol. 2, p. 362. 1895.

^b Kabltz, H. Ueber d. Wirkung einiger Baryumsalze beim Schwein. Deutsch. Thierärztl. Woch., vol. 13, p. 317. 1905.

^c Parkes, Chem. Essays, vol. 2, p. 213. Quoted by Christison, R., in Treatise on Poisons, Edinburgh, 4 ed., p. 581, 1845.—Fuchs, C. J. Vergiftungsfälle durch salzsäuren Baryt beim Rindvieh. Thierärztl. Mittheil., vol. 5, pp. 133, 154. 1870.

^d Falk. Zur Vergift. von Hunden mit Chlorbarium. Berliner Thierärztl. Woch., p. 40. 1897.—Schirmer, Chlorbariumvergift. beim Hunde. Berliner Thierärztl. Woch., vol. 23, p. 268. 1897.

^e Linossier, G. De la Localisation du Baryum dans l'Organisme à la Suite de l'Intoxication Chronique par un Sel de Baryum. Comp. Rend. Hebd. Soc. de Biol., 8 s., vol. 4, p. 123. 1887.

NOTE.—Other cases of poisoning in animals may be found in Marder, Beitrag z. Giftwirkung des Baryum chloratum. Berliner Thierärztl. Woch., vol. 37, p. 436. 1897; Absichtliche Vergift. mit Chlorbarium. Zeits. f. Veterinärk., vol. 9, p. 72. 1897.

^f Lane, C. B. Soling Crop Experiments. N. J. Agric. Exper. Sta. Bul. 158, p. 18. 1902.—Woll, F. W. One Hundred American Rations for Dairy Cows. Univ. Wis. Agric. Exper. Sta. Bul. 38, p. 12. 1894.—N. J. State Agric. Exper. Sta., 20th Ann. Rept. (1899), p. 193. 1900.

eaten by each animal per diem. In the analysis of the writer of one *Aragallus lamberti* from Hugo, Colo., it was found to yield 12.44 per cent of ash, and the barium content corresponded to 2.6 milligrams BaSO_4 in each gram of the ash. This would correspond to 10.24 grams of barium acetate ($\text{Ba}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2)_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$) or 9.15 grams of barium chlorid ($\text{BaCl}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) per diem. This amount daily administered would, theoretically, readily produce chronic poisoning owing to the accumulation in the system, as was shown in the case of rabbits.

There is, however, some question as to whether this full theoretical amount of loco plants is eaten on the range, and the estimate has been made that one-sixth of this amount only would be actually taken. It must be remembered, as Stalker pointed out, that locoed animals develop an especial taste for these plants and after a time reject other food, so that while the number of loco plants at first taken may be small, yet later, perhaps, it is greater. A part of this barium, however, may not be taken up by the system, but may pass out undissolved. No actual experiments have yet been made with cattle by feeding small doses of the pure salt.

No doubt more of the pure barium salts will be required to produce symptoms of poisoning in animals than would be necessary in the case of the form of barium found in the plant, as in the loco weed the barium is probably better protected from precipitation than are the barium salts when dissolved in water alone.

CONCLUSIONS.*

(1) Conditions analogous to those met with in locoed animals occur in other portions of the world, especially Australia.

(2) The main symptoms described in stock on the range can be reproduced on rabbits by feeding extracts of certain loco plants. Those especially referred to here under the term "loco plants" are *Astragalus mollissimus* and *Aragallus lamberti*.

(3) The production of chronic symptoms in rabbits is a crucial test of the pharmacological activity of these plants.

(4) The inorganic constituents, especially barium, are responsible for this action, at least in the plants collected at Hugo, Colo. Perhaps in other portions of the country other poisonous principles may be found.

* Résumé of the results of the loco-weed investigations carried on by the Bureau of Plant Industry was issued as Bulletin 121, part 3, Bureau of Plant Industry, on January 28, 1908, in the form of papers by C. Dwight Marsh and Albert C. Crawford, respectively, under the titles "Results of Loco-Weed Investigations in the Field" and "Laboratory Work on Loco-Weed Investigations."

(5) A close analogy exists between the clinical symptoms and pathological findings in barium poisoning and those resulting from feeding extracts of certain loco plants. Small doses of barium salts may be administered to rabbits without apparent effect, but suddenly acute symptoms set in analogous to what is reported on the range.

(6) The administration of sulphates, especially epsom salts, to form insoluble barium sulphate would be the chemical antidote which would logically be inferred from the laboratory work, but of necessity this would have to be frequently administered and its value after histological changes in the organs have occurred remains to be settled. But even the treatment of acute cases of barium poisoning in man is not always successful, even when sulphates combined with symptomatic treatment are employed. The conditions under which the sulphates fail to precipitate barium must be considered. At present it seems best to rely on preventive measures rather than on antidotal treatment.

(7) Loco plants grown on certain soils are inactive pharmacologically and contain no barium. In drying certain loco plants the barium apparently is rendered insoluble so that it is not extracted by water, but can usually be extracted by digestion with the digestive ferments.

(8) The barium to be harmful must be in such a form as to be dissolved out by digestion.

(9) In deciding whether plants are poisonous it is desirable not merely to test the aqueous or alcoholic extract, but also the extracts obtained by digesting these plants with the ferments which occur in the gastro-intestinal tract.

(10) It is important that the ash of plants, especially those grown on uncultivated soil, as on our unirrigated plains, be examined for various metals, using methods similar to those by which rocks are now analyzed in the laboratory of the United States Geological Survey.

(11) It is desirable to study various obscure chronic conditions, such as lathyrism, with a view to determine the inorganic constituents of lathyrus and other families of plants.

INDEX.

	Page.
Abortion, cows, caused by loco poisoning.....	13
rabbits, caused by loco and barium poisoning.....	41, 42, 62
Acid, acetic, found in loco weed.....	26
Acqua, C., reference to work.....	52
Africa, South, goat disease.....	17
Alfalfa, extract, experiments.....	28
Alkali deposits, supposed to cause loco disease.....	11
Alkaloidal reactions, loco plants.....	20, 23, 27, 28
Amaranthus graecizans, supposed cause of loco disease.....	10
American Pharmaceutical Association, proceedings, reference.....	10
Ammonia obtained from loco plants.....	26
Ammonium sulphid precipitate, effect on rabbits.....	50
Anæmia, progressing, fundamental characteristic of loco disease.....	16, 19
Analyses of loco plants.....	21, 22, 23, 32
Anderson, F. W., references to work.....	10, 12, 14, 18, 19
Animals, carnivorous and herbivorous, varying immunity to loco disease.....	23
domestic, barium poisoning, effects.....	72
experiments with barium salts in laboratory.....	57-62
farm, barium poisoning, effects.....	72
locoed, autopsies.....	18-19, 24, 26, 30, 34, 36-43, 45
clinical symptoms.....	12-16
pathological conditions as described on the range.....	18-19
poisoned by barium, autopsies.....	57-61, 64, 67, 73, 74
young, susceptibility to loco poisoning.....	15
Antelopes, susceptibility to loco disease.....	12
Antidote to loco poison, theoretical.....	71-72
Aragallus lamberti, ash determination.....	54
barium determination.....	54, 56
extracts, uses in laboratory experiments, feeding ani- mals.....	20, 23-25, 37, 42, 44-49, 66-68, 70
properties, investigations.....	20-21, 23-25, 32
spicatus, study and experiments.....	33
spp., cause of loco disease.....	10, 20-34
uses, medicinal and toxic properties.....	35
Arsenic poisoning, references.....	40
Ash determinations of loco plants.....	54-55
extract from loco plants, experiments.....	48-52
loco plants, barium determinations.....	55-57
importance of analysis.....	76
Astragalus bigelowii, extract, fatal to rabbit.....	38
bisulcatus, extract fatal to rabbit.....	38
decumbens, extracts, feeding experiments with rabbits.....	70

	Page.
Astragalus exscapus, barium reported by C. Sprengel.....	53
hornii, poisonous properties, study.....	19
lentiginosus, poisonous properties, study.....	19
menziesii, stock poisoning.....	20
missouriensis, ash content and barium determination.....	56
extracts, feeding experiments with rabbits.....	68-69
mollissimus, distillate, composition.....	26
extracts, experiments in feeding animals.....	22, 23-25, 27-33, 36-49, 70
investigations, experiments, and analyses.....	21-34
physiological action.....	22, 24-25
mortoni, a deadly sheep poison.....	20
nitidus extracts, feeding experiments with rabbits.....	38, 69
spp., cause of loco disease.....	10, 19-34
total ash determinations.....	54-55
uses, medicinal and toxic properties.....	35
varieties containing no barium.....	57
Australia, disease similar to loco poison, description.....	16-18
Autopsies on animals after barium poisoning.....	57-61, 67, 73, 74
loco poisoning.....	18-19, 24, 26, 30, 34, 36-43, 45
Bachem, C., reference to work.....	50
Bailey, F. M., reference to work.....	17
Barium acetate, feeding experiments on animals in laboratory.....	57-62
action on farm and domestic animals.....	72-74
carbonate, feeding experiments on animals in laboratory.....	61, 62
rats.....	71
hypodermic injection, cats, fatal results.....	62
chlorid, effects on human beings.....	63-65
feeding experiments with animals in laboratory.....	60-62
use in veterinary therapeutics, dangers.....	72-73
content of rocks in Rocky Mountains.....	54
determination in ash of loco plants.....	54, 55-57
discovery in loco plants, feeding experiments.....	5
feeding experiments with range cattle, desirability.....	71
harmful when in soluble form.....	76
in brine, poisoning stock.....	73
well water in England.....	57
insoluble after drying loco plants, extraction with digestive fer- ments.....	76
nitrate, feeding experiments on animals in laboratory, results.....	61, 62
phosphate, analysis by Bureau of Chemistry.....	60
poisoning, experimental, pathological lesions.....	65
horses, sheep, and pigs.....	73, 74
man, symptoms, results.....	62-65
presence in certain vegetable substances.....	53
salts, feeding experiments on animals in laboratory.....	57-62
toxicity of different solutions.....	64
relation of altitude, climate, and varying combi- nations.....	65
use in medicine.....	62-65, 72-73
sulphate, nontoxic on account of insolubility.....	53
Barrows, D. P., reference to work.....	35

	Page.
Bary, A., references to work.....	53, 59, 60
Baum, reference to work.....	64
Beech, barium present.....	53
Beer, Mexico, use of "crazy weed".....	20
Bellisari, G., reference to work.....	64
Beryllium chlorid, effect on rabbits.....	50
Binet, P., reference to work.....	59
Birch, barium present.....	53
Birdsall, W. R., experiments with <i>Aragallus lamberti</i>	20
Blankinship, J. W., references to work.....	11, 34
Blood, clots on brain.....	18, 26, 37, 42, 65
Boehm, R., reference to work.....	58
Böhm, C. R., reference to work.....	50
Bray, W. C., reference to work.....	53
Brewer, W. H., reference to work.....	20
Brine, barium content, producing acute poisoning in stock.....	73
Brodie, B. C., reference to work.....	61
Brunton, T. L., reference to work.....	72
Burgassi, G., reference to work.....	52
Cæsium chlorid, experiments on rabbits.....	51
occurrence in plants, toxicity.....	51
Calcium acetate, experiments on rabbits.....	52
carbonate, antidotal to barium.....	71
experiments on rabbits.....	52
occurrence in loco plants.....	25, 27
Cambler, J., experiments with loco plants.....	26-28
Canada, disease caused by eating ragwort.....	17
'freedom from loco disease.....	9
Cannabis sativa, supposed cause of locoed conditions in Mexico.....	10
Caprioides aureum, supposed cause of loco disease.....	10
Carpenter, J. S., references to work.....	63, 64
Cash, J. T., reference to work.....	72
Cats, barium injection experiments.....	62
loco-plant experiments.....	22, 24, 30
<i>See also Kittens.</i>	
Cattle, barium feeding experiments under range conditions, desirability.....	71
daily ration of green fodder, toxic effects of loco plants.....	74
loco poisoning, notes.....	12, 19, 20, 22, 28
locoed, flesh harmless.....	65
poisoned with barium chlorid, flesh harmless.....	65
range, barium feeding experiments, desirability.....	71
susceptibility to loco disease.....	12
Cerium chlorid, experiments on rabbits.....	50
Chemical experiments with loco plants.....	46-57
Chemicals in aqueous solution, effects on rabbits.....	50-52
Chemistry, Bureau, ash and barium determinations, loco plants.....	54, 56
Chesnut, V. K., references to work.....	10, 11, 33
Chevallier, A., reference to work.....	64
Christison, R., references to work.....	62, 63
Coffee substitute, use of seeds of <i>Astragalus boeticus</i>	35
Collier, Peter, study of loco plants.....	21
Colorado, loco disease experiments, results.....	5
loss of stock from loco disease, 1898.....	9

	Page.
Constipation, treatment of animals with barium, danger.....	73
Cotyledon ventricosa, cause of nenta, a goat disease.....	17
Courtin, reference to work.....	64
Cows, abortion caused by loco poisoning.....	13
autopsies after loco poisoning.....	18
locoed, symptoms.....	25
susceptibility to loco disease.....	12
Crawford, Albert C., loco investigations, reference to published paper....	75
Crazy weed. <i>See</i> Loco plants.	
Crotalaria sagittalis, cause of loco disease, chemical study.....	10, 26-27
experiments with horses.....	26-27
Curtice, C., reference to work.....	31
Cyon, M., reference to work.....	59
Cyprus, loco disease of cattle, sheep, and goats.....	22
Darling pea, effects on horses and sheep in Australia.....	16
feeding sheep, effects similar to loco poisoning.....	16-17
Day, M. G., experiments with <i>Astragalus mollissimus</i> and <i>Aragallus lamberti</i>	15, 23-26
Delphinium spp., supposed cause of loco disease.....	10
Demoussy, E., reference to work.....	53
Didymium chlorid, experiments on rabbits.....	51
Dieckerhoff, W., references to work.....	72, 74
Digestion of loco plants, experiments.....	66, 67, 68, 70
Diuretic, use of <i>Astragalus glycyphylus</i>	35
Dogs, barium feeding experiments, results.....	62
poisoning, subcutaneous injection.....	74
loco-plant feeding experiments.....	22, 23, 30, 53
Donkeys, susceptibility to loco disease.....	12
Dworzak, H., reference to work.....	53
Dyrenforth, reference to work.....	54
Eastwood, A., references to work.....	10, 12
Eckard, G. E., reference to work.....	53
Ehrhardt, J., reference to work.....	73
Emory, W. H., reference to work.....	19
Eschricht, reference to work.....	64
Experiments, laboratory, with barium salts.....	57-62
loco plants.....	36-56, 66-71
loco poisoning and barium feeding, results.....	5
Extracts of loco plants, digestion with pepsin and pancreatin, experiments..	66-68
testing, importance.....	76
use in laboratory experiments, varying toxicity.....	36-49
	66-71
Falk, reference to work.....	74
Faust, E. S., reference to work.....	31
Faville, reference to work.....	18
Felletar, E., reference to work.....	62
Ferguson, J. C., reference to work.....	63
Filippi, E., reference to work.....	62
Fletcher, J., reference to work.....	10
Fleurot, reference to work.....	35
Follin, O., reference to work.....	56
Food, use of loco plants.....	35, 74

	Page.
Forage, use of <i>Astragalus nuttallianus</i> and <i>A. crassicaarpus</i>	35
Forchhammer, J. G., reference to work	53
Foster, F. B., reference to work	26
Frankforter, G. B., reference to work	35
Fraps, G. S., reference to work	72
Fresenius, C. G., reference to work	72
Fritillaria pudica, supposed cause of loco disease	10
Frogs, loco-plant experiments	17, 22, 24
poisoning	17, 24
Fröhlich, A., reference to work	65
Fröhner, E., reference to work	73
Fuchs, C. J., references to work	65, 74
Funaro, A., reference to work	64
Garbanzillo, Spanish name for <i>Astragalus mollissimus</i> , derivation	11
Gibbons, H., reference to work	21
Givens, A. J., references to work	10, 35
Glands, swelling, in locoed animals, note	63
result of use of barium on human beings	63
Glover, R. M., reference to work	61
Goat disease, South Africa, note	17
Goats, loco poisoning	22
susceptibility to loco disease	12
Gordon, P. R., reference to work	17
Grass staggers, Texas loco disease, symptoms, description	11
Greshoff, M., reference to work	35
Guinea pig, autopsy after loco poisoning	43
pigs, loco-plant feeding experiments	32, 43
Guthrie, F. B., reference to work	17
Hairs on plants cause of loco disease, suggestion	22, 28
Hallucinations caused by loco poison	13
Hare, H. A., reference to work	63
Harkins, W. D., reference to work	49
Hayes, M. H., description of Texas grass staggers	11
Heftner, A., reference to work	58
Hellborn, F., reference to work	50
Hill, J. R., reference to work	22
Hillebrand, method of determination of barium in ash of loco plants	56
statement as to barium content of rocks in Rocky Mountains	54
Hoffmann, F., reference to work	26
Hogs, susceptibility to loco disease	12
Holmes, E. M., reference to work	35
Hornberger, R., reference to work	53
Horses, autopsies after barium poisoning	73
loco poisoning	18, 26
barium poisoning	73
disease caused by feeding on Darling pea (<i>Swainsona galegifolia</i>)	16
loco-plant experiments	33
loco poisoning, notes	16, 19, 20, 26
locoed, symptoms	13
susceptibility to loco disease	12
Hough, W., reference to work	35
Howard, C. D., reference to work	73

	Page.
Hugo, Colo., soils, analysis for traces of barium.....	57
Hunt, Reid, study of and experiments with loco plants.....	33-34
Hurd, H. M., reference to work.....	35
Husemann, T., reference to work.....	62
Hydrocyanic acid, presence in loco plants, suggestion.....	29
Indigo disease, similarity to loco disease.....	16-17
Ingersoll, study of loco disease.....	30
Injections, subcutaneous, experiments with barium salts.....	62, 73, 74
loco extracts.....	43
Insanity, treatment, use of Astragalus mollissimus.....	35
" Insect Life," reference to work.....	31
Intoxication caused by loco plants.....	13, 16, 21, 22
Jaksch, J. v., references to work.....	51, 62
Janvier, reference to work.....	11
Kabitz, H., reference to work.....	74
Kansas, loss of stock from loco disease in 1883.....	9
Kellogg, A., reference to work.....	10
Kelsey, F. D., reference to work.....	10
Kennedy, H., reference to work.....	63
Kennedy, J., experiments with loco-weed extracts.....	23, 26
Kingsley, B. F., reference to work.....	12
Klissner, G., reference to work.....	61
Kittens, loco-plant experiments, and autopsies.....	24-28
<i>See also Cats.</i>	
Klench, J. P., reference to work.....	19
Knop, W., reference to work.....	53
Knowles, M. E., references to work.....	13, 14
Kobert, R., references to work.....	33, 54
Labaud, L., reference to work.....	51
Laboratory experiments with loco plants.....	36-57
Lagarde, P., reference to work.....	64
Lambs, experiments in feeding loco plants, symptoms and autopsies..	31, 45, 46
Lane, C. B., reference to work.....	74
Lanthanum chlorid, experiments on rabbits.....	50
Lathyrism, symptoms, resemblance to loco poisoning.....	15
Leucocrinum montanum, supposed cause of loco disease.....	10
Lewin, L., references to work.....	65, 72
Lewis, Doctor, experiments with loco plants on rabbits.....	30
Linossier, G., reference to work.....	74
Lisfranc, reference to work.....	64
Lloyd, J. W., study of loco poison.....	31, 32
Loco-acid, body supposed to be in loco plants.....	30
disease, attributed to hairs on plants.....	22, 28
worms.....	31, 34
experiments, Colorado, results.....	5
symptoms, descriptions.....	11, 12-16, 17, 24, 26, 28, 29, 33, 36-44
eating habit, description.....	14, 15
intoxication.....	13, 16, 21, 22
investigations from a pharmacological standpoint, historical sketch..	19-34
plants, ash determinations.....	54-55
ashed, aqueous extracts, effect.....	48-52
barium determinations.....	55-57

	Page.
Loco plants, eaten with large amounts of other food presumably not dan- gerous	71
effects on human beings	15, 20, 22, 35
extracts, digestion with pepsin and pancreatin, experiments ..	66-68
extracts, variations in toxicity	66-71
use in laboratory experiments, varying toxicity ..	36-52, 66-71
list	10
poison, varying in carnivorous and herbivorous animals	23
with season, variety, and origin	25, 48
uses as food, forage, medicine, etc	35
without barium not poisonous	68-71
<i>See also</i> Loco weeds.	
poison, attempts to isolate the active principle	47
poisoning, laboratory study, results	5-6
symptoms	11, 12-16, 17, 24, 26, 28, 29, 33, 36-44
reproduction in rabbits	29, 33, 36-44, 75
theoretical antidote	71-72
Locoed animals, clinical symptoms	12-16
pathological conditions as described on the range	18-19
derivation of term	9
Locoin, experiments by Ruedi	30
Loco-weed disease, geographical distribution	9
family, notes on use of various members	35
<i>See also</i> Loco plants.	
Lopes, A., reference to work	64
Lotus americanus, supposed cause of loco disease	10
Lüdeking, C., reference to work	72
Lutterkorth, H., reference to work	53
McCullaugh, F. A., references to work	12, 13, 15, 19
McEackran, Doctor, loco-plant experiments with horse	33
Magnesium acetate, experiments on rabbits	52
Magnus, R., reference to work	58
Malden, J. H., reference to work	16
Maisch, J. M., references to work	21, 35
Malbec, A., reference to work	58
Malnutrition, cause of loco disease, suggestion	29, 34
Malvastrum coccineum, supposed cause of loco disease	10
Man, barium poisoning	62-65
loco poisoning, symptoms	15
Manganese acetate, experiments on rabbits	51
Manitoba, occurrence of loco poisoning	10
Marine plants, barium taken up from sea	53
Marsh, Dr. C. Dwight, investigation and collection of loco plants, and reference to published paper	36, 75
Marshall, H. T., loco plant study, reference to work	31, 34
Martin, C. J., description of effects of feeding the Darling pea to sheep ..	16-17
Matthews, W., reference to work	35
Mayo, N. S., loco-plant studies, references to work	11, 13, 18, 32, 71
Meat from locoed cattle harmless	65
Medicago sativa. <i>See</i> Alfalfa.	
Medicine, use of loco plants	35

	Page.
Poisoning, loco, theoretical antidote.....	71-72
symptoms.....	11, 12-16, 17, 24, 26, 29, 33, 36-44
reproduction in rabbits.....	29, 33, 36-44, 75
Porcher, F. P., reference to work.....	35
Post-mortems. <i>See</i> Autopsies.	
Pott, E., reference to work.....	35
Power, F. B., experiments with loco plants.....	26-28
Pregnancy, animals in, experiments in feeding barium salts.....	62
loco plants.....	41, 42
Prescott, A. B., study of <i>Aragallus lamberti</i>	20
Rabbits, autopsies after barium poisoning.....	57-61, 67
loco poisoning.....	30, 34, 36-43
barium salts, feeding experiments.....	57-62
chemicals in aqueous solutions, feeding experiments.....	50-52
loco plants, ash extracts, feeding experiments.....	48-49, 66-71
feeding experiments.....	22, 24, 29, 30, 33, 34
in laboratory.....	36-44, 48-49, 66-71
reproduction of symptoms of loco poisoning.....	29, 33, 36-44, 75
Rabies, treatment, use of <i>Astragalus kentrophyta</i>	35
Rabuteau, reference to work.....	59
Ragwort, poisonous effects, Canada.....	17
Ram, barium poisoning, autopsy.....	74
Ration, daily, green food for cattle, toxic effects of loco plants.....	74
Ruts, feeding experiments with barium carbonate.....	71
Rattle-box. <i>See</i> <i>Crotalaria sagittalis</i> .	
Rattleweed disease. <i>See</i> Loco disease.	
Reichardt, E., reference to work.....	64
Reincke, J. J., reference to work.....	59
Resins from loco plants, experiments.....	26
Reynolds, M. H., investigations with barium.....	65
<i>Rhamnus lanceolata</i> , supposed cause of loco disease.....	10
Rocky Mountains, high percentage of barium in rocks.....	54
Roscoe, H. E., reference to work.....	53
Rosenthal, D. A., reference to work.....	35
Rossbach, M. J., reference to work.....	65
Rothrock, description of loco plants, effects on animals.....	20, 21
Ruedl, Carl, experiments with loco plants and references to work.....	14, 19, 29-30
Sages said to cause loco disease.....	11
Salvation, result of loco poison.....	12
use of barium on human beings.....	63
Salt licks supposed to cause loco disease.....	11
prevention of poisonous effects of Darling pea.....	17
Santi, L., references to work.....	59, 72
Sayre, L. E., investigations and experiments and references to work.....	10, 11,
14, 18, 19, 22, 23, 25, 28, 29, 30, 31, 34, 48	
Schedel, H., reference to work.....	65
Scheibler, C., reference to work.....	64
Schirmer, reference to work.....	74
Schorlemmer, C., reference to work.....	53
Schuchardt, B., description of symptoms of locoed animals, similar to lathyrism.....	15
Schulz, H., reference to work.....	63

	Page.
Schwartzkopff, O., references to work.....	12, 13
Schwillgué, C. J. A., reference to work.....	63
"Science," references to papers on loco plants.....	11, 31
Scrofula, treatment, use of barium.....	62
Senecio jacoboea, poisonous effects.....	17
Sestini, F., tests for beryllium.....	50
Sheep, autopsies after barium poisoning.....	74
loco poisoning.....	18, 30, 33, 45
disease caused by feeding on Darling pea.....	16-17
loco-plant feeding experiments.....	30, 44-46
poisoning, notes.....	20, 22, 30, 33, 34
locoed, symptoms.....	14-15
susceptibility to loco disease.....	12
Smith, J. G., reference to work.....	35
Snow, F. H., reference to work.....	31
Soils, analysis, Hugo, Colo., for traces of barium.....	57
Sophora sericea, supposed cause of loco disease.....	10
Spine diseases, treatment, use of barium.....	63
Sprengel, C., reference to work.....	53
Staggers, grass, Texas loco disease, symptoms, description.....	11
Stalker, M., description of symptoms of locoed animals and references to work.....	10, 11, 14, 15, 16, 18, 21, 26, 64
Steele, C. D., reference to work.....	31
Stern, E., reference to work.....	64
Stietenroth, reference to work.....	73
Stipa vaseyi, supposed cause of loco disease.....	10
Stock, losses from loco diseases.....	9, 34
poisoning by barium in brine.....	73
Stockman, Doctor, experiments with extracts of <i>Astragalus mollissimus</i>	22
Storer, F. H., reference to work.....	72
Storke, B. F., references to work.....	19, 25
Strontium acetate, experiments on rabbits.....	52
Subcutaneous injections. <i>See</i> Injections.	
Sullivan, Dr. E. C., determination of barium in <i>Aragallus lamberti</i>	54
Sulphates antidotal to barium, suggestions.....	71-72, 75
Suzuki, U., reference to work.....	53
Swain, R. E., reference to work.....	49
Swainsona galegifolia. <i>See</i> Darling pea.	
spp., effects on sheep and horses, similar to loco poisoning.....	16-17
Syphilis, treatment, use of <i>Astragalus exscapus</i>	35
Taenia expansa. <i>See</i> Tapeworm.	
Taito, F., reference to work.....	64
Tallquist, T. W., reference to work.....	31
Tapeworm, sheep, suggested cause of loco disease.....	30
Texas grass staggers, loco disease, symptoms, description.....	11
Thallium nitrate, experiments on rabbits.....	50
Thorium chlorid, experiments on rabbits.....	50
Thorpe, T. E., reference to work.....	57
Tidy, C. M., reference to work.....	61
Tiraboschi, A., reference to work.....	64
Titanium chlorid, experiments on rabbits.....	50
Tixier, L., reference to work.....	41

	Page.
Torrey, J., reference to work.....	19
Toxicity, variations in extracts of loco plants.....	66-71
Turner, F., reference to work.....	17
Ulcers in stomach.....	18, 24, 37, 41, 43, 49, 69
Vasey, George, investigations and references to work.....	12, 13, 14, 19, 20, 21
Walt, C. E., reference to work.....	51
Walsh, J., reference to work.....	64
Watson, S., study of <i>Aragallus lamberti</i>	20
Weber, F. R., reference to work.....	59
Wheat, barium present.....	53
Wheeler, G. M., references to work.....	20, 21
Wilcox, E. V., references to work.....	11, 33
Wilcox, T. E., reference to work.....	13
Williams, T. A., reference to work.....	10
Winslow, K., reference to work.....	73
Wohlwill, F., reference to work.....	51
Woll, F. W., reference to work.....	74
Wools, W., reference to work.....	17
Worms, cause of loco disease, suggestion.....	30, 31, 34
Yttrium chlorid, experiments on rabbits.....	51
Zirconium chlorid, experiments on rabbits.....	50-51
<i>Zygadenus elegans</i> , supposed cause of loco disease.....	10

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